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ABSTRACT

Written for petty officers and chief petty officers, this training manual and nonresident career course is designed for individual study in leadership techniques and styles, effects of stress and conflict on human behavior, interpersonal communication, human behavior and motivation, and basic theories of teaching and learning. Divided into eleven chapters, each chapter addresses a different subject as it pertains to Naval practice and procedure. Chapter 1 gives an overview of leadership, its meaning, implications for Naval personnel, and leadership styles. Chapter 2 is a summary of different leadership approaches and results. Chapters 3-5 deal respectively with causes of specific human behavior, how human behavior can be influenced, and percpetion of behavior (your own and others). Chapter 6 suggests ways to deal with people under stress (including oneself). Interpersonal relationships and communication techniques and problems are discussed in chapter 7, followed by suggestions and guidelines for management by objectives in chapter 8. The Leader and His Group, chapter 9, defines a group, relates the leader to a group, and suggests effective ways for a leader to function in a group. Chapter 10 addresses problem-solving and decision-making, and chapter 11 indicates effective methods for teaching. (FP)

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HUMAN BEHAVIOR AND LEADERSHIP

NAVAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING COMMAND

RATE TRAINING MANUAL

NAVEDTRA 10058-B

C022 548

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
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PREFACE

Human Behavior and Leadership is a Training Manual and Nonresident Career Course (NRCC) written for leading petty officers and Chief Petty Officers of the United States Navy and Naval Reserve. It is intended to assist them in the execution of one of their most important functions—that of leading people.

This Training Manual and Nonresident Career Course form a self-study package that will enable senior enlisted men and women to help themselves fulfill the leadership requirements of their rate. Among these requirements are knowledge of basic theories and styles of leadership, basic assumptions about human behavior and motivation, influence of perception on human behavior, effects of stress and conflict on how a person reacts to situations, establishment and maintenance of interpersonal communications, methods used to integrate goals of individuals and groups, basic steps in problem solving procedures, formation and influence of attitudes, relation of human value goals to managerial action, and basic theories of teaching and learning.

As the title implies, the course deals with both human nature and leadership. It shows the inter-relationships between them. With an understanding of these interpersonal relationships, the CPO can increase his effectiveness in understanding people. It goes without saying that the CPO must of necessity be well qualified in his military and technical duties before he can be a real leader.

Designed for individual study and not formal classroom instruction, the Training Manual provides subject matter that relates directly to concepts of leadership in the Navy. The NRCC provides the usual way of satisfying the requirements for completing the training manual. The set of assignments in the NRCC includes learning objectives and supporting items designed to lead students through the Training Manual.

This Training Manual and Nonresident Career Course was prepared by the Naval Education and Training Program Development Center, Pensacola, Florida, for the Chief of Naval Education and Training.

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THE UNITED STATES NAVY

GUARDIAN OF OUR COUNTRY

The United States Navy is responsible for maintaining control of the sea and is a ready force on watch at home and overseas, capable of strong action to preserve the peace or of instant offensive action to win in war.

It is upon the maintenance of this control that our country's glorious future depends; the United States Navy exists to make it so.

WE SERVE WITH HONOR

Tradition, valor, and victory are the Navy's heritage from the past. To these may be added dedication, discipline, and vigilance as the watchwords of the present and the future.

At home or on distant stations we serve with pride, confident in the respect of our country, our shipmates, and our families.

Our responsibilities sober us; our adversities strengthen us.

Service to God and Country is our special privilege. We serve with honor.

THE FUTURE OF THE NAVY

The Navy will always employ new weapons, new techniques, and greater power to protect and defend the United States on the sea, under the sea, and in the air.

Now and in the future, control of the sea gives the United States her greatest advantage for the maintenance of peace and for victory in war.

Mobility, surprise, dispersal, and offensive power are the keynotes of the new Navy. The roots of the Navy lie in a strong belief in the future, in continued dedication to our tasks, and in reflection on our heritage from the past.

Never have our opportunities and our responsibilities been greater.

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CHAPTER 1

LOOKING AT LEADERSHIP

This book is about Navy people, their behavior and goals. It is designed to give you new insights into what makes them act so you can increase your effectiveness as a leader.

We will examine many concepts of leadership and human behavior. Some you may already know; some may be new to you. Because there is no single way of leading that is always best for every person or for every situation, you may want to experiment with some of these new concepts to find what works best for you.

To the extent that you improve your leadership abilities, your people will do their work better. That is the reward to you. Leaders are evaluated, not so much by the technical work they do, but by their ability to increase the effectiveness of their people in getting the job done. The reward to the Navy will be better people. The Navy has the best equipped ships, aircraft, and weapons systems, but only well-trained, dedicated people can make these systems work.

As you read the text, remember that the words man or men include both men and women. The Navy had 19,000 enlisted women in 1976.

You have a lot of experience with people and many different types of situations. To get the most out of the book, bring this experience to bear. When you run into a principle of human behavior in the book, actively think about it and tie it in with your experience. Talk about it with somebody to help clarify your ideas.

If you gain a better understanding of your responsibilities and actions in carrying out your Navy leadership functions—getting Navy tasks done through the effective use of your personnel—this book will have served its purpose.

THE MEANING OF LEADERSHIP

What does leadership mean to you as a Chief in the Navy? Your ideas about leadership are probably different from another Chief's ideas. One might say that leadership is the ability to inspire your men and another might say that leadership is the ability to keep your men in line.

Here is what some chiefs in the Navy had to say when they were asked the question, "What does leadership mean to you?"

191.19.1

• STCS—17 1/2 years in the Navy—"One who guides others by communications. In the past, the follower was uneducated and the leader was more educated. Therefore, it was necessary to guide through physical force in one form or another. But, in the present civilized society, it requires more of a mental communication. In other words, a civilized man would rebel against force all the time. Under certain circumstances, he could be moved temporarily but the educated man today requires motivation. You have to instill pride in them, give them a challenge, really. If you explain the goals of the unit you're leading and they understand the goals and the importance of their job in reaching these goals, I think this tends to instill individual self-motivation and teamwork. Like I say, the educated person we're dealing with today likes to see the reason for his work. If they can understand that and the fact you're taking your time to talk with them, you're sharing your responsibility with them. Now, they have some self-respect and they're going to do their utmost to reach the goal. You've first, though, got to learn to communicate to be genuine and sincere".

191.19.2

• SKCS—19 years in the Navy—"I guess the first word that comes to mind is honesty—not only honesty within yourself but with everybody you come into contact with. I imagine the next thing is pride in the Navy and in your professional field. One thing I think about is a leader's willingness to listen to other people's ideas and then forming opinions about what to do—not being "one way" or doing it "my way" only. And, also, being willing to compromise but on the other hand, holding your own ground when necessary because you're responsible for getting the job done. I guess I'd want to find in a leader a person who is friendly and willing to help. Willing to help and being dependable. You could always be able to depend on your leader, not only for military functions or professional things but for personal matters, too. You could go to this particular person and this person would be willing to listen and try to help in some way. A leader's somebody you should be able to look up to but not because he's better than anybody else. Also, being knowledgeable about the Navy (advancement opportunities, for example) as to military duties and your professional field. Being a leader is knowing how to get a job done and then getting it done quickly and accurately."

191.19.3

• OMCS — 14 years in the Navy—"There are about 369 men in my rating so I'm dealing with small groups—normally, no more than ten people in a shop. So, my ideas about leadership are different than, say a Boatswain's Mate. I'm lucky that I can use a personal touch in my situation as it's a small, close-knit group. It all boils down to personal example, close direction, and a soft-handed approach. We don't have to yell and scream at our people to get the job done. We treat them as intelligent people, which they are. I like to use the approach of rewarding for positive or proper responses to directions. If a guy does a good job, a pat on the back is what he gets. If he deserves a kick in the pants, we don't go that far. It's never necessary. Other forms of reprimand are available, when required, which isn't very often."

191.19.4

• EMCS — 16 years in the Navy—"I don't think anyone can really define leadership but it's the ability to get along with people and that's the root of the whole thing because if you can get along with your men, you can get the particular job done. A leader doesn't have to be particularly smart but he has to know the capabilities of his men. A man's background has nothing to do with it. Just the way he applies himself to different situations and that's just about it."

191.19.5

• RDCS—15 1/2 years in the Navy — "The word, "leadership", is worn out. The word scares most sailors, especially the senior men. It's better to talk about management or directed effort. Well, I've always looked at my job as a morale type petty officer. I've often said my primary job is professional but a close second is my responsibility to my men. I consider morale one of my main jobs. Treat them as human beings, rather than just "coolies" or "slaves". That's the old Navy approach—"Do as I say, not as I do."

I think that's a sick approach. . . You have to stand up for your men — backing them up. Have a chain of command that has respect down as well as up. When you look out for your men, you're going to do better. If people had direct concern for their people rather than for themselves, it'd be a better Navy. A lot of people disagreed with my people program. But my men excelled as a team. They set two records for high grades in refresher training that I think still stand. I estimate that at least twelve out of my twenty men received commendations from the C.O., squadron commander, and fleet commander during WESTPAC. Also, out of ten men up for reenlistment, nine shipped over. It all comes back to that word — morale. Now, they're coming around to my way of thinking — treat them like people, treat them like individuals, respect their needs and desires."

191.19.6

• DTCS — 19 years in the Navy — "Leadership can't be put into mere words because no two situations are alike. It's dependent upon personalities involved. Leadership can't be learned from a book. It's something a guy develops on his own. A man's either born with it or he develops leadership abilities by being exposed to good and/or bad leadership. From a good leader, you take his good qualities and from a bad leader, you make sure you don't do what he does."

191.19.7

• RMC — 15 years in the Navy — "There's no real definition of leadership. A person's leadership ability is determined by his ability to get the job done efficiently, on time, making the best use of personnel available. A good leader will get things done and still maintain the respect of his personnel. He can accomplish his tasks by obtaining the willingness of people to work rather than through fear. They're both aspects of leadership although the person who can do the job without using threats or reprisal on his men will ultimately accomplish higher goals than the leader who accomplishes his goals through instilling fear in his subordinates."

191.19.8

• FTCS — 23 years in the Navy — "Try to deal with each man as an individual, mainly, by choosing the best man in his rate as a criteria. Also, you have to have the confidence of your men. They have to believe that you know how to get the job done. I don't ask anyone to do anything that I can't do myself. In other words, personal example.

I also try to exhibit military traits. Also, we're dealing with much younger people than we are.

Sometimes, you have to be paternalistic with them -- talk to them as a father would and sometimes, lay the law down. You have to be firm and sure in your convictions. And then there's that old axiom "praise in public and reprimand in private" and I believe firmly in that. Sarcasm and ridicule have no place in leadership. I don't know how to say this, but to instill confidence, you have to exhibit loyalty both up and down in the chain of command. Chiefs and warrants have to learn leadership by example. My traits of leadership might be altogether different from someone else's but the end result should be the same. At the Academy and other schools, they teach you certain leadership attitudes but they don't teach you leadership. These traits have to be developed by the individual."

191.19.9

• DTC—16 years in the Navy—"The basis of leadership is nothing more than common sense or treating a young man like you'd want to be treated. Say someone will have a problem that to you will be trivial but to him it's a real big thing—something he's never run into before and he's not able to cope with it. If he comes to you, he's there for some guidance. Also, someone might have a really big problem and if you can't help him yourself, you should send him to someone who can. One of the main things they want is guidance. Then, you should follow-up later on and see if he's satisfied with what's been done. If you've shown this interest in him, his morale is going to be built up and one of the key things about leadership is morale. These young guys need to know that you really care about them, what happens to them and what their basic problems are. This makes for a happier job feeling and more esprit de corps. Just these few steps establish rapport so they're not afraid to come to you not only about their problems but on the job things too. Anytime you have this rapport or two-way communication, your job is made a lot simpler and so is theirs. By doing this, you instill pride within yourself and in your men. He might someday use your example when he becomes a supervisor—this chief did that for me and I'll do likewise for this guy. However, avoid the trap of becoming one of the guys. Should a discipline situation arise, the men will not be quite sure what your position is. There is a fine line between being one of the guys and that of a leader. By experience a leader determines where this line is and strives to maintain a feeling for his men, their problems and morale while at the same time working to accomplish the mission of the activity, ship, or station."

These are good ideas about leadership. They don't always agree. Yet they hit the "bulls-eye" on many principles of leadership such as communications, morale, cooperation, and a supportive work climate. We'll discuss them in detail in this book.

No doubt you, too, could add your own ideas about this elusive subject as you think back over your many years of experience starting from your recruit days up to your present leadership position. Or perhaps, you agree with several comments here and there while you disagree with some of the others. After all, it's your own individual style of leadership and it's not exactly like anyone else's style.

But how do we make any sense out of leadership when everyone has his own ideas? What then, is leadership?

We will look at the many aspects of leadership by examining leaders' characteristics, leadership functions of a petty officer, and styles of leadership, including the leadership-centered, group-centered, and flexible styles.

THE QUALITY OF LEADERSHIP

You can nearly always identify who is the leader of any group. He is the one who takes charge and who, in a work situation, directs the efforts of others to get a particular job done.

To some people, it's just getting the job done. To others, it's not only getting the job done but it's how the job gets done.

If the leader gets the required work done with the whole-hearted support of his people, he is demonstrating good leadership. If what he does produces dissension, disorganization, or inefficiency, he cannot be considered effective.

191.20

To be effective he earns and maintains the confidence, respect, and cooperation of his men in the way he deals with them. It's been said that a leader is known by the people he develops. He takes an interest in them and guides them in a way that utilizes their talents, capabilities, and skills.

chief petty officer. The basis of a leader's earned authority may be his personality, expert knowledge, problem-solving ability, or other capabilities. Often, his earned authority is a composite of his many abilities. But, whatever the reason for it, a person is a leader only inasmuch as he is freely followed.

191.21

They, in turn, are more responsive and increase their abilities to do the job. These tangible results help identify the leader He is known by his actions and the results he gets.

Leadership then can be defined as the art of influencing and directing people to win their obedience, confidence, respect, and willing cooperation in achieving a common objective.

For a clearer understanding of leadership, let us also distinguish between the concept of "leadership" and the leader role of manager, officer, or chief petty officer. The leader role depends on a formal grant of authority but leadership is based on a grant of authority from those who are led. It is earned authority. This grant may be the sole authority or it may be in addition to the formal grant of authority, which characterizes the role of a commander or

CPO LEADERSHIP FUNCTIONS

Leadership performance is a complex affair. A great deal of effort has been spent to find out what it is that leaders do that make them effective. Most of the studies have been one or two kinds. They have either concentrated on the traits a leader should possess or they have concentrated on general patterns of leadership approaches or ways of dealing with people for the best results.

In order to understand the results from either approach, it may be helpful to consider the various leadership functions of a Chief. Of course, the precise functions of leadership and the best structuring of these functions will vary according to the type of group and the general situation in which the group is operating.

For example, your leadership functions of a loosely knit social or recreational group that freely chooses its leaders may be considerably different from those of a highly structured military unit that has a specific mission assigned.

Regardless of the type of group, one of your most important functions is meeting your organization's goals. While all members of a group are concerned with meeting the group's goals, you have the prime responsibility for guiding the group to this end. This is the purpose of leadership. The precise manner in which you accomplish this will vary greatly from group to group, but generally whatever you do to get the job done can be grouped under three functions. They are maintaining high morale of the group's members, providing technical supervision to the group, and fulfilling certain administrative functions. These are tied together so closely in practice that is it difficult to separate them. But for the sake of study, let's look at each one separately. In carrying out these functions, you adapt or modify your approach to supervising the group.

MAINTAINING HIGH MORALE OF THE GROUP'S MEMBERS

In some kinds of groups (social or recreational, for example) the leader is selected by the members.

191.23

. . .In the Navy, you are not chosen by the group.

191.22

. . . If you are their elected leader

If you are their elected leader, you usually do not have too much trouble maintaining good morale or persuading or inspiring them to do well. This is because the group picked you as the person it wanted to follow. When a group selects its own leader, it generally selects the person who best fits most members' ideas of the appropriate leader for the group. As a result, the members are initially disposed to follow the leader's guidance and to respond to his actions in a positive way. When the leader no longer fills their needs, they get a new one. A basic concern of an elected leader is to preserve the support of the group's members who selected him. This is difficult, of course, if the group changes for the original feelings of the members toward the leader may also change.

In the Navy, you are not chosen by the group. You are designated as the leader by virtue of your rate. You are the head man whether the members of the group might prefer someone else or not. Your task of maintaining morale and motivating your people to do their best often can be difficult. You can accomplish things by merely giving orders and demanding that they be obeyed. Since most military men are well aware of the customs and regulations of the service, they will usually respond to such direction. By relying solely on his vested authority, you will see to it that at least the basic job of your group is accomplished.

191.24

However, to the extent that you can create the kind of feeling in your group that would cause them to select you as their leader if they had the chance, the more effective leader you will be. To the degree that you can get members to want to do their best rather than merely doing the minimum they feel is expected of them, your job will be less difficult.

TECHNICAL SUPERVISION

Another important function of yours is to provide technical supervision of the other men in the group. In job and military situations, you generally have more experience, training, and skill than the other men in your group. This enables you to instruct and guide the others in their work and to evaluate the work done to make sure it meets work standards. As part of your technical supervision, you can also correct your men's mistakes and help them improve their performance as well as develop new and better ways of handling the work. In all of this, you contribute to solving problems that come up on the job.

You may use different approaches to your men in tackling the situations that arise. You should always try to carry out your technical supervision in a way that motivates your people to do their best.

FULFILLING ADMINISTRATIVE FUNCTIONS

Every work group in the Navy is part of a larger group which, in turn, is part of a still larger organization. To guarantee that all parts of such a large organization as the Navy will function smoothly, administrative requirements have been established. Without formal rules and established ways of operating, large organizations would lose effectiveness.

You are a representative of your group to the next higher group. By seeing that your group gets the job done, you and the group contribute to the organization's overall goal. Every leader at every level has this responsibility to his superiors. He must see that established administrative procedures are followed in an orderly and regular manner.

In your technical supervisory duties, you can use many avenues to fulfill your administrative functions. In channeling information down to your people, for example, you can pass the information on in a routine way, or you can call your people together and interpret and explain the

information. Sometimes, one method is better, sometimes, another. You must be as concientious and ingenious in handling routine administrative matters as you are in supervising your group technically and in trying to motivate or lead rather than boss your people.

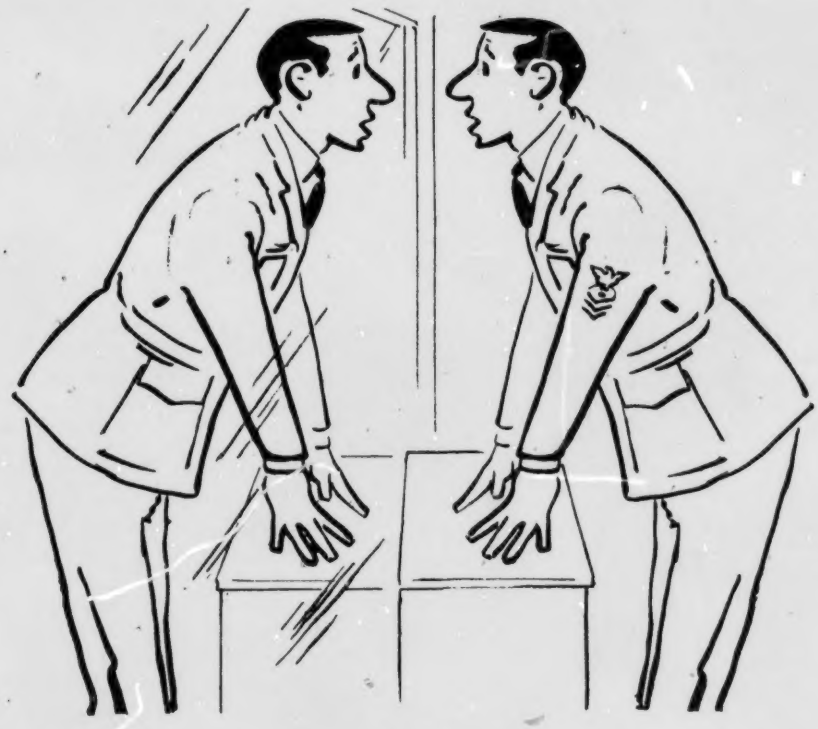
You affect the morale of your people in the way you handle many administrative duties, such as approving leave requests, processing chits, awarding liberty, etc. Members of a group will respect you if you are fair and consistent in administrative decisions, neither favoring or penalizing any member.

You can and should also use the exercise of your administrative functions as a background for counseling, guiding, getting better acquainted with, or otherwise dealing with your people. In carrying out both your supervisory and administrative functions, you always remember that how you do these will affect the morale of your unit.

Your technical supervision and administrative functions may vary with your group's specialized tasks. On the other hand, actions to maintain the morale of your group are always your concern. The human relations aspects of leadership apply regardless of the type of group or the function being performed. When you supervise the technical operations of your group or carry out your administrative duties, the manner in which you do them will help or hinder the morale and general effectiveness of your group in all aspects of its performance. Human relations skills play an important role in all of your leadership activities.

STYLES OF LEADERSHIP

What's your style of leadership? Do you practice one style of leadership all the time or do you vary your actions according to a particular situation or the type of people with whom you're working? You might have asked yourself the question, "How do I maintain respect for my position of authority and at the



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same time give my men a greater voice on what has to be done?"
Or, "How can I get their point of view when I'm under pressure to get the job done?" Puzzling questions to be sure that have no easy answers. A leader must walk a tight-rope when it comes to solving these dilemas of leadership. Looking at how a leader practices leadership may shed some light.

There are many ways in which you can practice leadership. The two styles diametrically opposed to each other are the autocratic (leader-centered) and democratic (group-centered) styles. Most people's styles fall somewhere between.

The words "autocratic" and "democratic" give us some clues as to their meaning. "Auto" comes from the Greek word meaning "self", "demos" refers to people, while "cracy" means "rule". Autocracy means rule by a person with absolute powers, such as a dictator, or a person who imposes his will on others, while democracy means rule by the people, especially, rule by the majority. The similar word "authoritarian" means "relating to or favoring submission to authority." Putting it all together, the autocratic or authoritarian style of leadership is centered in the leader himself, usually on the basis of his legal authority, while the democratic style is based more on the needs, wishes, and will of the group. Let's first examine the autocratic style.

FEATURES OF THE AUTOCRATIC STYLE

Some characteristics of the autocratic, or leader-centered style are that it is direct, receives a fast response, impersonal, and seems to help the leader retain control of his men.

Direct

The autocratic leader takes all the responsibility upon himself to guide and direct his group's efforts. He imposes his will upon the group and his manner is direct when he tells his people to do something. The men don't normally question any of his commands nor do they feel free to modify or revise what he tells them to do. The directness of his commands while he retains complete power to make decisions makes his leadership job seem very simple.

Fast Response

As the autocratic makes all decisions himself and generally discourages discussions or possible changes to his decisions, he usually gets a fast response to his commands. The men might not completely understand all the ramifications of his directives, but they will normally try to carry them out. The emphasis is on their carrying out the order rather than thinking much about how they can contribute their efforts.

Control By The Leader

This type leader seems to retain all the control over the group's actions. As things must be done his way, he spends a lot of time checking his men's work to make sure that they've complied. He also maintains close supervision over his people as he doesn't want to delegate any of his control to his men. He asserts his authority by virtue of his official position. His people "owe" him their obedience and respect as he is their appointed leader. This is his "right" and he doesn't have to earn it. Or so goes the thinking of the autocratic leader.

Impersonal

As the autocratic leader relies on his formal position as the basis for his leadership, he doesn't place much emphasis on his relationships with his people to get the job done. As his leadership is centered in himself, he deals with his people in an impersonal manner. He doesn't really get to know them very well. He uses a one-way style of communications, he being the sender and his men being the receivers. This approach isn't conducive to closely knit groups or a free exchange of ideas between the leader and his group.

RESULTS OF THE AUTOCRATIC STYLE

Autocratic leadership gets the job done on a short-term basis. Studies show that groups under this type of leader usually produce well for short periods of time while the leader is present but that their production decreases over extended periods of time. This is also true when the leader is absent for any length of time. Followers become dependent upon the autocratic leader for directions and they are not prepared to deal

with changing situations when the leader is absent.

Over a brief period of time people submit to being always told what to do but over a long period of time, they develop frustrations and dissatisfaction if they are not allowed to express their own ideas and opinions.

Autocratic leadership aims at complete and unquestioning compliance by the follower. In some military situations, men must immediately obey an order. For example, the "Forward March" order in a parade usually gets instant compliance. In an emergency or wartime situation most men realize the necessity of complying with a direct order. Under normal circumstances, men prefer to see the reason for doing a job rather than blindly carrying out their tasks. When direct orders are given continually without any explanation, men will usually react with a minimum response. Men, under this style of leadership, become conditioned to being told what to do, and consequently, they must be continually told.

191.26

They do what is expected of them but their initiative and drive to get the job done diminishes over a long period of time.

Occasionally in military service, an autocratic approach may be the only way for a leader to achieve the desired results. However, the leader who takes into account the needs and feelings of his people will probably find that an autocratic approach can generally be avoided in a normal working situation. Furthermore, the leader who is sensitive to the needs, desires, and frustrations of his subordinates is more likely to be followed willingly when the situation demands an autocratic approach than is the leader who has no skill in human relations.

FEATURES OF THE DEMOCRATIC STYLE

Some characteristics of the democratic style are that it is participatory and time-consuming. It requires interpersonal skills, reliance by the leader on his followers, teamwork, and is conducive to achieving long-term objectives.

Participatory

Democracy means that people play an active role in matters that concern them. In the work situation, the democratic leader encourages participation by the group's members.

191.27

Setting up procedures, making decisions, and discussing mutual problems in accomplishing the work schedule are only a few of the areas in which people bring their skills and abilities to apply in the work situation.

Cooperation From Subordinates

To make the democratic style work, a leader needs cooperation from his people. He cannot order them to think up new ways of doing things but he, by his manner and attitude, can encourage their voluntary participation in new decisions or revised procedures, etc. With their cooperation and support, he gains an acceptance of his leadership and there is no necessity for him to impose his will arbitrarily upon his group. However, in instances where he must impose his will arbitrarily, as in a GQ drill, he will likely gain their unquestioning response because they understand the need for GQ and are willing to work to make the ship operate efficiently.

Time Consuming

As people play a more active role, it may take longer to get things done. Yet the time involved in getting his men's ideas may be a good long-term investment for a leader if it results in doing the job a better way, or in less time overall.

Skills In Interpersonal Relationships

As there is a closer personal working relationship between the leader and his people, he must have some understanding of people to deal with them effectively. He takes into account his people's feelings and attitudes and acts accordingly.

Reliance By The Leader On His Followers

The democratic leader allows his people some leeway or freedom of action for carrying out their tasks so long as the final goal is successfully attained. He depends upon them to do their job efficiently and he makes sure that they receive the necessary training. Some of the responsibility to get the job done shifts from him, as the appointed leader, to them as responsible, capable people on whom he can depend to do the job well.

Human Relations and Teamwork

The democratic leader works closely with his people and allows them to use their initiative. He encourages them to contribute their skills and abilities. Good human relations build this spirit of cooperation and working together as a team.

Long-term Objectives

Many pressures occur in the work situation and leaders must often take the short-term approach in solving problems or meeting deadlines. Perhaps, you receive a rush job and you tell your people, "This has to go out by two o'clock this afternoon—Now, do it this way." Your people might grumble a little but they will usually all pitch in to get the job done if the foundation for achieving long-term objectives has been built. Good human relations, teamwork, skill in working with people and utilization of their ideas help build this foundation that will endure the daily strains and stresses of people at work.

RESULTS OF THE DEMOCRATIC STYLE

The democratic style of leadership, skillfully applied, builds interpersonal relationships, uses and develops subordinates' capabilities, and is personally satisfying to the subordinates as they are given more freedom of thought and action. He influences his followers by building good interpersonal relationships rather than by depending on his rank.

Studies conducted by the American Institute for Research show that democratic groups sustain better production over longer periods than autocratic groups. They are also able to keep producing when the leader is absent.

It is up to a leader to determine when he can successfully apply this style. To the extent that leadership functions can be shared through delegation of authority to sub-leaders, and through explanations as to why certain decisions are made, the leader can reap benefits.

FEATURES OF THE FLEXIBLE STYLE

The features of both the autocratic and democratic are pertinent to the flexible style. The success of the flexible style depends in large

degree on the judgment of the leader in determining to what extent either of the other two styles can be applied in his particular work situation.

The leader who employs the flexible style tends to

- be adaptable
- exercise a great deal of freedom
- make frequent judgments

Adaptable To The Situation

The leader experiments with a variety of approaches until he determines which particular approach brings the best results. One situation may require him to make a decision by himself and in another situation, he may allow an individual to carry out a task with little or no supervision. With the flexible approach, the leader might appear to be strict at times and lax at other times. Sometimes he might ask and at other times he might command.

With the flexible approach a leader has a wider latitude to experiment with different actions but he retains his people's respect by being constant in helping the group achieve its work goals.

Judgment By The Leader

The leader must evaluate each situation and then take action accordingly. He must know the members of the group well to perceive each situation accurately as it occurs. A high degree of judgment or insight into the basic situation is essential to making this style work.

Freedom Of Action By The Leader

Flexibility is the key word of this style. The leader must be flexible in his ideas and attitudes. He is willing to test new approaches in dealing with his group. He is willing to change old methods of doing things when a new approach brings improved results. As a worker gains experience, some external controls, such as close supervision, may be removed and more freedom of action given him. For example a worker requires detailed instructions when he first types a Navy letter but after he does it several times successfully, he can do it more on his own.

RESULTS OF THE FLEXIBLE STYLE

Results of the flexible style are variable according to the skill and judgment of the leader in evaluating work situations and the relationship of his people to the work situation. His influence is increased or decreased according to his interpersonal skills. The subordinates may have varying degrees of influence upon the leader. Studies show that when a leader successfully applies the flexible style his group has a higher production than either the autocratic or democratic groups.

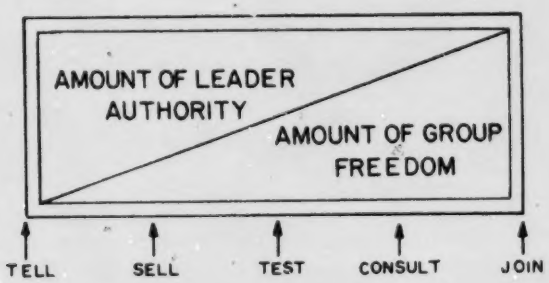
Summing it all up, the autocratic leader depends to a large extent on his formal authority to direct the efforts of his people. The democratic leader depends more on the personal influence he exerts through his working relationships with his people. The flexible leader applies either of the two styles according to his knowledge of his people and judgment of the particular situation.

CHAPTER 2

APPROACHES TO LEADERSHIP

Effective leadership is based on the leader's actions and is measured by the results that he gets from his people. Great dependence on authority isn't likely to always produce the best results. On the other hand, the democratic approach may not be effective as the group may prefer the leader to make all the decisions. They may not yet wish to work independently or to assume a greater share of the responsibility. The dilemma of leadership is finding the most effective approach to obtain the best results.

Within the range of leadership from authority to leadership through personal influence, there are different approaches to leadership.



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The Styles of Leadership As A Function of Supervisor/Group Power, starting with the telling approach on the left, shows the leadership-centered style that gradually changes into the group-centered style ending with the joining approach on the far right.

THE TELLING APPROACH

The telling approach corresponds to the authoritarian approach. You retain your authority to the maximum extent and you give your group little freedom. You decide and the group follows. You examine the problem, look at alternatives,

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choose the course of action, and then inform your subordinates of your decision. You consider the skills, knowledges and attitudes of your group, but they do not participate in the decision making.

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THE SELLING APPROACH

Next on the scale is the selling approach in which you sell and your group accepts. You make the decision and then you sell your decision to your group by persuading them that the

decision is "the best" technically and "the best" for the group. You emphasize how the group will benefit from carrying out the decision.

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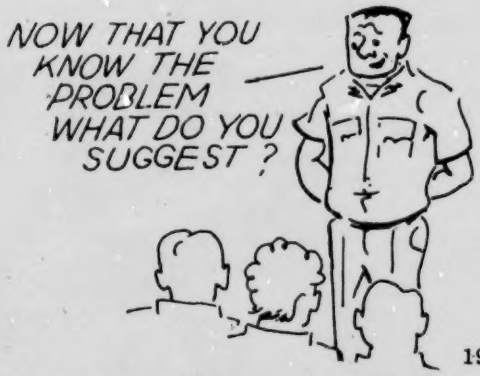
THE TESTING APPROACH

In the testing approach, you test, react, and you decide. You identify the problem and select a tentative solution. You allow the group to react and you may accept suggestions. Then you make the final decision and inform the group.



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THE CONSULTING APPROACH

Continuing on the scale, you consult your group, the group makes recommendations and you decide. You present the problem and solicit ideas from group members. Then you select the solution and inform the group of your decision.

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THE JOINING APPROACH

On the extreme right of the scale, there is the joining approach. The group decides and you follow. Here the supervisor participates as "just another member" of the group. You agree in advance to carry out whatever decision the group makes within the constraints placed on you by your superiors. Note that the roles of leader and follower appear to be reversed.

STYLES OF LEADERSHIP RELATED TO APPROACHES TO LEADERSHIP

From the scale, we can see that your dominance is the greatest in the telling approach and that it gradually decreases through the other approaches until the group has complete freedom in the joining approach.

The group has almost no freedom in the telling approach but its freedom increases progressively through the other approaches until it has almost complete freedom in the joining approach.

We can also approach leadership according to the values that a leader places on accomplishing the unit's work mission and on supporting his people's needs.

WORK GOALS MAXIMIZED
AND PEOPLE'S NEEDS MINIMIZED

This supervisor is production-centered. The terms "driver" and "boss" more aptly describe him than the term "leader." He is primarily concerned with the process and mechanics of production. He spends most of his time worrying about what and how much is produced. He is not concerned about the workers except to push them for increased production. Production is his main concern.

Studies indicate that departments run by this type of supervisor are actually low producers. In other words, in spite of all the concern the supervisor has for the process of production, his production is actually comparatively low.

WORK GOALS MINIMIZED
AND PEOPLE'S NEEDS MAXIMIZED

This leader is primarily concerned for the well-being of his people but he fails to emphasize accomplishment of the mission. He would like to give everybody 3 days off every week. Although he would never accomplish anything, his people would be happy. He is the opposite of the supervisor described above.

WORK GOALS BALANCED
WITH PEOPLE'S NEEDS

This leader balances the needs of his people and the demands of the mission. He believes the two are incompatible; that if he concentrates on the mission, the well-being of his people will suffer, and vice versa. His people usually perform at a slightly above average level.

WORK GOALS MINIMIZED
AND PEOPLE'S NEEDS MINIMIZED

This leader is indifferent to both the accomplishment of the mission and the well-being of his people. As he fails to accept responsibility for either, he passes the buck, delegates responsibility, procrastinates, and blames others for his own failures.

WORK GOALS INTEGRATED
WITH PEOPLE'S NEEDS

This leader successfully integrates the needs and abilities of his people with the demands of the mission. He creates a work climate that builds mutual trust, respect, and understanding. He considers both the task aspects of the work situation and the needs and skills that each person brings to the job. He sits down and talks with his people, coaches them, and tells them in advance of changes, and gets their ideas on changes. He encourages his people to contribute their ideas, initiative, and abilities to get the job done. He relates the work to the people working under his supervision in a manner that wins their cooperation and support for the unit's mission.

Studies indicate that the supervisor who builds good job relations actually produces more than a supervisor who concentrates on production and attempts to drive his workers.

TAKING STOCK—YOUR APPROACH TO LEADERSHIP

How do you determine where you stand on the leadership scale?

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First, you should look at some of the factors that affect your leadership style.

Forces within you that may be examined are your value system, your confidence in the division, basic assumptions about people, and personal inclinations.

Some questions you may ask yourself are:

Should my men share in desicion-making?

Can I trust my men to do the job well and efficiently?

Have I trained them to do the job in my absence?

Do I feel comfortable in team efforts?

Do I prefer to lead and tell?

Do I feel more comfortable if things are predictable and controlled?

Do I keep poised in a rapidly changing situation?

Do I prefer a stable situation and the status quo?

Do job pressures cause me to be curt with my men?

There are also forces within the group that help determine your style of leadership. Some questions to think about are:

Are my men ready for responsibility?

Do they like to work independently?

Do they prefer to be led and closely supervised?

Are they interested in the problem?

Do they understand the purpose of their jobs?

What are their expectations?

What do they hope to accomplish?

Do my men like to be told what to do or do they like to work things out by themselves when they feel they have the ability?

Forces within the situation itself are also pertinent. You may consider the following questions. Is the problem complex?

Does it require several heads to solve it or would it be just as easy to have one person work it out?

Do I take into consideration the consequences of my actions when I deal with my men under a tight deadline or unexpected crisis such as General Quarters?

Do I realize the personal factors of a problem situation as well as the mechanical factors?

ANALYZING YOUR LEADERSHIP STYLE

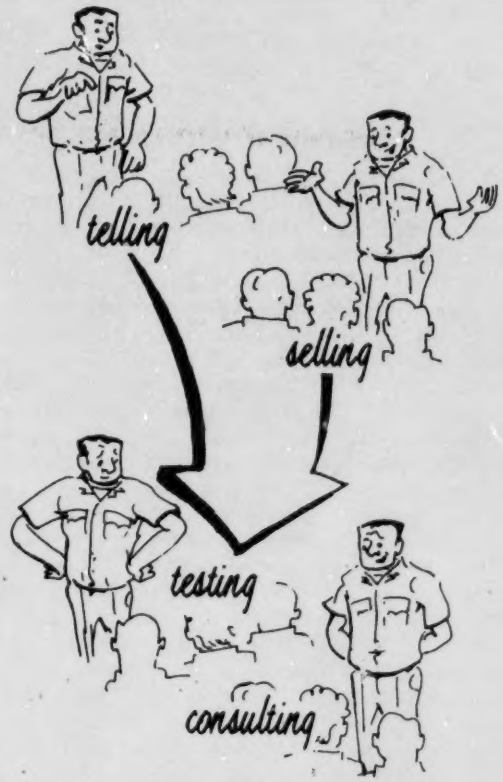
After thinking about the forces that influence your actions, you can probably identify your own pattern of leadership on the scale.

If you believe that your men are ready for responsibility, that they can be trusted to do the job efficiently, and that they like to work independently, you can probably apply the testing and consulting approaches. The amount of freedom that you give your men is proportional to the degree of confidence you have in them.

If you believe that your men prefer to be led and closely supervised, that they should not share in decision-making or contribute their own ideas, and that they are not yet ready for responsibility, you probably find that the telling and selling approaches are consistent with these assumptions.

Identifying the forces that influence your pattern of leadership may also help you modify your present style. If you believe that your men are not ready for responsibility or that they prefer to be led, then you can take steps to increase their capabilities and skills for working independently with less close supervision. After they progress in their handling of their jobs, you can deal with them in a way that allows them more freedom and independence.

As the young recruit needs more training and supervision, the telling and selling approaches may be appropriate. After he gains experience and greater self-direction you may use the testing and consulting approaches with a greater degree of success.



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If you generally use the telling and selling approaches, your style tends towards the autocratic. The testing and consulting approaches are more democratic and less authoritarian. If you practice the consulting and joining approaches, you are giving your men maximum freedom.

THE LEADER ORIENTED APPROACH TO LEADERSHIP

For many years people have puzzled over whether leaders had some special quality or trait that make them a little different from non-leaders or perhaps, caused them to become leaders. Many different characteristics have been explored including physical traits, mental

ability, intelligence, and personality traits. Here are some conclusions about the influence of certain traits on leadership abilities.

PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE LEADER

Physical Traits

Are leaders different from other people in terms of their physical condition or traits? For example, is the leader taller than the non-leader? Heavier? Does he have more energy and stamina? Better health? Is his appearance better than or different from the non-leader?

Generally speaking, leaders do not turn out to share any common physical trait. Some leaders are tall, some short, some heavy, some light, some are more attractive than people who are not leaders while others are not, and so on.

It's a fact though that leaders of certain kinds of groups do have certain traits in common. For instance, research has shown that leaders of athletic teams are generally taller than average, and that leaders of social activities are more attractive than average. From these findings, we learn that if the trait is important in getting the job of a certain group done, the leaders of those groups will probably have more of that particular trait than the average member of the group.

The same kind of thing is true of weight, energy, health, and appearance. Different kinds of groups contain different kinds of people with different kinds of physical ability and traits. For wrestling teams, weight and strength are very important for success. For explorers and mountain climbers, stamina and energy are crucial. For social clubs, appearance and grooming are important. The needs of a group vary according to its particular goals and usually, the leader of that group is an outstanding member when it comes to doing whatever it is that the group does; so he must have whatever it takes physically to get along in the group. Say that a man has outstanding finger coordination and can do very fine work with his hands. He may become an Instrumentman (IM) and in time advance to Chief and turn out to be a very fine leader. Another man may not have as much of this special physical skill. His work is not as good, he loses interest, and he never gets above 3rd class. In time he leaves the Navy, never having become much of a leader.

But suppose that he possesses great physical strength and stamina and he decides to become a Molder (ML). His physical strength may contribute to his success in these ratings. These are example where physical traits may have an influence on who becomes a good leader even though they by themselves cannot guarantee it.

In the Navy there is more to leadership than getting a special job done, running a shop, or supervising a work group that has certain technical duties. The leader (or foreman/supervisor) in a factory does not have the same kind of round-the clock and overall responsibilities to his organization and men that a petty officer has. General military and moral leadership goes beyond work duties and tasks. In exercising his broad leadership responsibilities, it is safe to say that physical traits probably play a part only in a negative way. That is, if a man lacks stamina and energy, or does not have average good health, he will probably not be able to stand up as a military leader. A leader's success depends upon many things — both in him and in the situation around him.

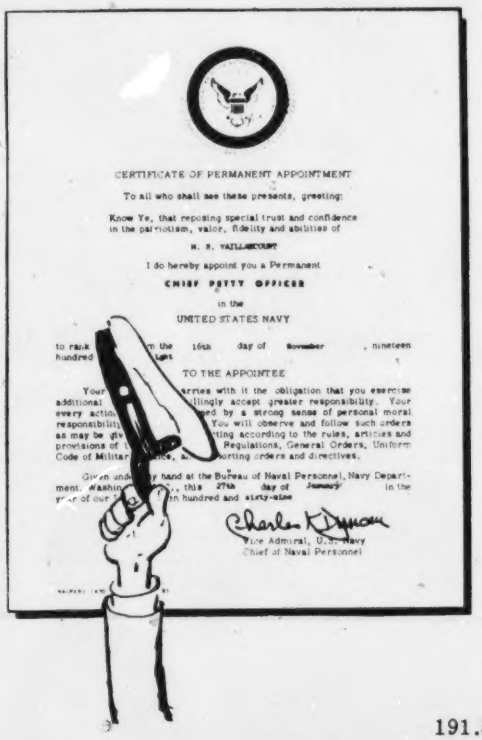
MENTAL ABILITY AND INTELLIGENCE

Every group has some goal or purpose — winning games, turning out a piece of equipment, collecting money for a charity, keeping up with the work turned over to them by another group, and so on. In any group, one of the leader's main jobs is to see to it that the group gets done what it is supposed to get done. The successful leader is the one who does this well — that is, aids the group in meeting its goals. For most groups that are concerned with turning out a product or service, problems have to be solved, tasks have to be assigned, work has to be checked, schedules have to be established, and difficulties that come up have to be ironed out. This means that for the leader there is a lot more to do than just the special job for which the group is responsible. The leader has to organize, instruct, evaluate, reduce friction, improve morale, and so on. Also, the leader has to stimulate and inspire other members of the group, and bring together their contributions to the group's goals.

Because of the complexity of the leader's job, many people think that leaders must be more intelligent than non-leaders. Many leaders, in fact, do get higher scores on tests measuring intelligence and mental abilities than do non-leaders. But here, too, a lot depends on what kind of group the leader is in, and what constitutes the purpose and activities of the group.

Besides what might be called general intelligence, there are many specific aspects to mental ability. One group of people may be very good at certain kinds of things that take a certain kind of intelligence, say playing poker and another group may have other special areas of ability that make them excel at other things, say working crossword puzzles. The people in both groups are equally intelligent, generally—but the people in one group are better than the people in the other group when it comes to doing certain kinds of jobs or learning certain kinds of things.

In the military, many procedures help create an atmosphere where leaders can function well, without interference by such factors as the intelligence level or mental abilities of the leaders and group members. Classification and other examinations help insure that individuals who will work together are of somewhat comparable ability. Exams for advancement in rate also help. If a man has what it takes to make Chief Petty Officer, it's pretty certain that he has the mental abilities to fulfill the leadership requirements of his rate.



CERTIFICATE OF PERMANENT APPOINTMENT

To all who shall see these presents, greeting:

Know Ye, that reposing special trust and confidence in the patriotism, valor, fidelity and abilities of

M. S. VAILLECOURT

I do hereby appoint you a Permanent

CHIEF PETTY OFFICER

in the

UNITED STATES NAVY

to rank from the 16th day of November, nineteen hundred and sixty-eight.

TO THE APPOINTEE

You are carries with it the obligation that you exercise additional willingly accept greater responsibility. Your every action ed by a strong sense of personal moral responsibility. You will observe and follow such orders as may be gi ting according to the rules, articles and provisions of t Regulations, General Orders, Uniform Code of Militar orting orders and directives.

Given und hand at the Bureau of Naval Personnel, Navy Department, Washin , this 27th day of January in the year of our on hundred and sixty-nine

Charles K. Duncan
Vice Admiral, U.S. Navy
Chief of Naval Personnel

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The same thing is true about different kinds of intelligence or aptitudes. Selection procedures for getting into the Navy, for advancement in rate, acceptance to various schools, etc. help to insure that a man has the kind of mental equipment he needs to do his job. If a man has what it takes to make his rate, he probably has what it takes in terms of mental abilities to make a good leader. If a petty officer is not successful, chances are it isn't because he isn't smart enough in general or in his special area of his work.

PERSONALITY

The word "personality" is often thought of as something some people have and some don't. "He has a lot of personality" is a common expression.

Actually, the word can also be used in another way—namely, to cover a person's general disposition, manner, way of behaving, personal traits, and so on. When the word is used this way, everyone has a personality and it is not measured in terms of quantity—that is, a lot or a little.

Personality covers many characteristics as self-confidence, sociability, willfulness and persistence, dominance, cheerfulness, enthusiasm, talkativeness. . . our list could go on and on. Let's examine some of these characteristics.

Self-Confidence and Assurance

If you are confident and assured and believe in your own abilities and decisions, you give other people a very different impression from a man who has little or no confidence in himself and who is not sure of the appropriateness of his actions or the rightness of his decisions. The good leader is one whose men trust him and follow him confidently. Military leaders generally tend to have more self-confidence and assurance than non-leaders.

There is a difference between what we have called self-confidence and what could be termed arrogance or conceit. Good leaders definitely do not impress their men as being conceited or arrogant. This is especially true when we look at the manner in which the effective leader works with his people.

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Your function is to see to it that the group accomplishes its goals and their willing acceptance of you as their leader makes your job that much easier.

Sociability and Friendliness

If you are approachable and friendly you are likely to establish a rapport with your people that will help you to understand your people better and to learn how to treat them so that they want to do a good job, and get ahead.

This doesn't mean that all sociable people are leaders, or that the leader of a group is necessarily the most sociable person in that group. As with confidence, sociability by itself does not make a good leader but when it is combined with other factors, it can help.

Drive — Persistence, Ambition, Initiative, Will-Power

It is hard to really distinguish between willfulness, persistence, ambition, etc. "Drive"

encompasses them all although another term like "determination" could also be used.

It is easy to see that qualities like determination and ambition are very useful for a leader. It helps if all members of the group have a strong desire to succeed in getting the job done. You often have the job of setting the pace and stimulating other members of the group. Therefore it is especially important that you be eager to get the job done to meet the group's goals. Your persistence and determination both help.

You cannot get into a position of leadership in the military unless you have a certain amount of drive and determination. A career in the Navy involves some danger, personal risk, and the possibility of unpleasant duties to be carried out. You can't quit or change jobs because something is coming up that you don't care to do. A man who doesn't have the determination to follow through isn't going to last. In this way, you who have stayed in the Navy and advanced to leadership positions have proved yourselves on this account. Drive is like intelligence in this respect. If a man has enough drive to become a petty officer he has enough to be a good one if he has everything else it takes.

Cheerfulness, Enthusiasm, Talkativeness, Etc.

Are leaders more cheerful, enthusiastic, and talkative than non-leaders? Are they more outgoing and extroverted than non-leaders?

There's no clear cut answer to this question as a lot depends on the kind of group involved, the sort of task they have to tackle, and how the leader is selected. If you become a leader of a social group on the basis of your popularity, these qualities would play an important part in your getting picked for the job.

In a work group doing a highly technical job, you must possess the necessary technical competence and experience. The man who lacks technical expertise is likely to have a hard time in a group doing technical work. However, in any group, a man who is not cheerful, is unenthusiastic, won't talk, and is otherwise uncongenial will not be able to communicate with others in the group or to motivate them effectively.

Desire for Power

Do leaders need to dominate others? Do leaders desire greater power than non-leaders? Some people believe that leaders definitely show more of a need for dominance and power than non-leaders while others believe that leaders and non-leaders do not differ very much in this respect.

It seems that what is most important is how a leader's needs for dominance are seen by himself and expressed to others and what kind of group is involved.

If you dominate others only to satisfy your personal vanity or to seem important to yourself and others, chances are you will not have the cooperation of the group and that you will not be able to function well.

If you exert dominance over others so that you can get the job of the group done while at the same time, gaining their cooperation and support, chances are increased that you will function effectively as a leader.

The major difference lies in the degree to which your dominance appears to be directed to supporting the group's efforts to doing the job. Most Navy personnel anticipate and accept the assertion of authority by ranking petty officers. As long as dominance or ambition is seen by subordinates as helping them to meet their goals, it will probably contribute to your success. When subordinates think that your power drive is used primarily to satisfy your own needs or goals, they are likely to react negatively by working grudgingly or even by resisting. Conversely, followers react positively when they believe your power drive is used in ways that help and support their efforts.

CONCLUSIONS ABOUT A LEADER'S PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS

The general conclusion from studies concerning personal characteristics that you as a leader should have is that it all depends on the kind of task to be done, the type of group involved, and the general situation in which the group's activities are carried out.

No single physical, mental, or personality characteristic has been found that always or even usually separates a leader from his followers. In general, leaders have at least average good health and energy, intelligence, and desirable personality traits. However, leaders do not have some special characteristic that by itself makes them a good leader. Leaders on the average have more drive and determination than do non-leaders, but there are still many people who are not leaders who have great amounts of these characteristics.

The thing that stands out is that leaders generally have several good traits. They may not have any single trait that sets them off from non-leaders, but they usually have a concentration of positive qualities that helps them gain respect and good opinion from their subordinates.

Every group has a goal, purpose, or job to do. The good CPO is one who makes a significant contribution to the group's meeting its goals. One type of group or situation may require an entirely different set of characteristics by the leader and members than would another group or situation. The good CPO of a group has those characteristics that make for successful membership in that particular group—only generally he has more than other members of the group of whatever it takes to get along with them. Thus, a man who is a fine supervisor of a machine shop crew might not be able to perform as well if he were in charge of an electronics shop simply because he doesn't have the special skills and abilities necessary for the job. He could not contribute as much to meeting the electronic group's goals and would, therefore, not be as effective as he had been with the machine shop crew.

Besides belonging to a certain work group, every Navy man is a member of larger groups—his division, his ship, and the whole Naval establishment. Like the smaller job groups, these larger groups have goals and purposes. A leader's success depends to a great extent on his relationships with the members of his group and the larger groups. We have seen how your personal characteristics affect the attitudes and behavior of the group either favorably or unfavorably. In a very direct way, your followers can and do affect your success in meeting your responsibilities.

As the group's members play an important part in the leadership process, let's turn our attention to leadership that takes into account your followers' needs and preview the material that will be presented in detail in following chapters.

THE FOLLOWER-ORIENTED APPROACH TO LEADERSHIP

APPRECIATING THE BASIC NEEDS OF PEOPLE

Everybody likes to feel that they are people of some importance and value. To them, it's important that their sense of dignity and self-respect be preserved in all their dealings with their fellow man.

People also desire recognition for their efforts and achievements. As the author Somerset Maughan once said, "People ask you for criticism but they only want praise." Sometimes criticism is necessary but the manner in which it is given and a little praise mixed with it can go a long way to lessen the sting and still preserve a man's dignity.

A person's sense of worth is enhanced when you ask for his opinion or he helps you make a decision. The decision may be big or small but the important point is that you considered the man's ideas of value. Suppose a man has worked hard to complete a project and you, after looking at it, make changes and deletions without asking him why he did it that way.

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This diminishes his feeling that he is a capable person. Instead, if you call him in and ask him why he did it that way, you gain a better understanding and insight into his motives and reasons. After some discussion, you both could probably reach an agreement or perhaps, a compromise. Dealing with the man in this way does not threaten his sense of personal value and he will be more likely to respond to your suggestions.

This is just one small example of how a leader can build mutual trust and respect in his dealings with his people. Appropos is the quotation by John Locke (1632-1704) who said, "He that will have his son have a respect for him and his orders, must himself have a great reverence for his son."

UNDERSTANDING THE NATURE OF HUMAN BEHAVIOR

People generally respond favorably to a leader who considers their basic needs for respect and value. There's a lot of truth in that old adage "You can catch more flies with honey than you can with vinegar." If a person believes the leader is acting in a way that is helpful and supportive, his reaction will usually be favorable and positive. We call this supportive leadership and we'll discuss it more in depth throughout the book.

RECOGNIZING AND USING INDIVIDUAL TALENTS AND ABILITIES

To build their sense of innate worth, people desire recognition for their talents and abilities. They also seek opportunities to employ these abilities in a constructive fashion. The leader who gives appropriate recognition for a job well-done reinforces a man's self-esteem and his desire to use his abilities to a greater extent.

When you recognize a man's good work you show that you care about high quality performance. If you never give recognition to a man for a good job, he soon adopts the attitude, "Well, the boss doesn't really care if I knock myself out on this job—I might as well do just enough to get by—he'll probably not notice the difference." On the other hand, a simple "well done" or a "thank you" for a job done well may be enough reward to a man who has given you his best.

RECOGNIZING THE MOTIVATING FACTORS OF HUMAN BEHAVIOR

Many factors are involved in a person's motivation to do the job. A good leader recognizes that a man's desire to do a good job does not occur automatically. "The applause of a single human being is of great consequence" said Boswell in his book "Life of Johnson". Which is another way of saying that recognition or a "pat on the back" is of some consequence to any man. Once the leader realizes that a man's will to work comes from within, he strives to create the conditions that will generate that will from each of his men.

INTEGRATING THE INTERESTS OF THE INDIVIDUAL WITH THOSE OF THE ORGANIZATION

A good leader realizes that a man's needs and desires need not be separate from those of the organizational goals. People bring their needs to the work situation. For example people have a continuing need for approval and achievement that the leader seeks to satisfy on the job. These needs cannot ever be completely satisfied but if you are friendly and approachable and give recognition when appropriate, you can do much to help meet these needs of your people.

FOSTERING AND MAINTAINING A FAVORABLE WORK CLIMATE

To foster in your men a sense of personal worth and dignity, you seek to create favorable work conditions such as an atmosphere of approval. It helps if subordinates feel secure in their work environment. You can be instrumental in creating these favorable work conditions by acting in a way that helps them to feel that you truly approve of their efforts.

THE CPO'S ROLE AS A LEADER

THE CPO IS A MIDDLE MANAGER

You are a middle manager as you supervise people of lower ratings than yourself and you also carry out the policies and instructions of

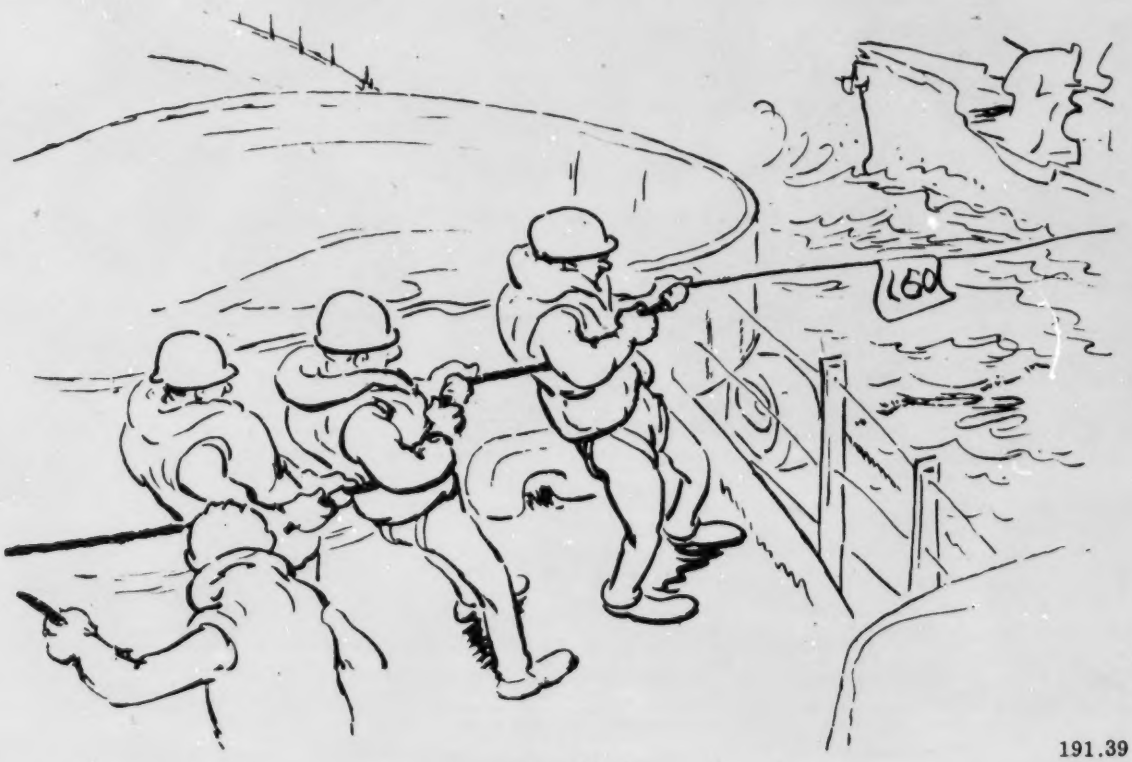
your superiors. You are the connecting link between the two groups. Through your leadership skills you carry out such policies and procedures through your people and it is your group that performs the tasks to implement the higher goals.

To carry out your instructions from your superiors, you are called on to engage in an almost infinite variety of contacts with your people. You plan for them. You reward and discipline them. You teach them. You concern yourself with their personal problems when they come to you for guidance and assistance. You deal with the group as a unit, doing things that make for higher morale or better organization. If you are to do well your job of leading men, you must have great skill in dealing with people. And, to make things even more complicated, the specific skills needed will change with each concrete situation in which you find yourself. To lead a refuelling gang while in enemy waters requires certain skills. To lead an antiaircraft gun crew in combat requires still different behavior. The answer to the question "What do you do while acting as a leader?" boils down to two basic things:

(1) You do the job your rating calls for
(2) You work with people to get the job done

You get the technical aspects of your job done as you have the technical knowledge that you have acquired through special courses and general Navy experience. If you are a Machinists' Mate, for example, you possess technical skills to repair and maintain your machines. You are able to repair and to keep your machines operating for you have mastered set routines or procedures that work. After you determine a machine has a defective gasket, you know the machine will operate efficiently after you replace the gasket.

It's a different matter in dealing with people for in working with people, there is no prescribed or "magic" formula that will always



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produce the desired results. It helps though if you keep in mind overall guidelines and basic principles of human nature. As you must, through study and training, know and understand the machines you work with, so must you give equal importanct to knowing and understanding the people with whom you work.

People are more complex than machines and it helps if you understand how people are alike, how they differ, and what generally makes them tick. Knowing about people can tell you what people generally do and feel when someone bawls them out or denies them the basic satisfactions of life. This knowledge and understanding, plus experience, can do a lot to increase your skills in working with your people and in handling any life situation.

SUMMARY

You may exercise your responsibilities on the sole basis of formal authority granted you by an organization. This approach to leadership may have certain advantages such as insuring compliance but it alone does not guarantee high quality performance by subordinates.

You may see your leadership role as encouraging your people to assume personal initiative and more of an active role in meeting their job responsibilities. This approach requires leadership skills in dealing with people to gain their cooperation and willing participation.

When you blend your personal leadership skills with your official authority, you increase the productivity of your group. Successful leadership occurs when you cause your subordinates to accept orders without any undue exertion of authority or force on your part. To be a leader, you must have followers; to be a good leader, you must have willing followers.

A key concept for you is flexibility to consider many factors such as job deadlines, capabilities of your people, etc. Then you try to make your leadership style fit the situation.

It is impractical and impossible for you yourself to perform all the work tasks and you must depend on your people to a large degree to do a good job. As you work closely with your people to get the job done, the human factor is necessarily of great significance to you. You need the cooperation and efforts of your people to meet the work goals.

Seek to know and understand your people and to build a spirit of teamwork and high morale that is directed toward achieving the work goal.

CHAPTER 3

WHY PEOPLE BEHAVE THE WAY THEY DO

The history of Man's thought about Man is long and confused. It is full of wild notions and superstitions concerning omens, possessions by witches, and influences from the stars. It is also full of sincere quests for logical and scientific explanations of why people act the way they do.

The search for human understanding has had some success. It is far from complete but we probably do a better job of understanding people than our cave-dwelling, witch-hunting ancestors did. In explaining what people do, modern social scientists have developed several basic ideas.

BEHAVIOR IS CAUSED

Behavior does not happen without cause any more than a cruiser crew does not just happen to fire a salvo or change the ship's course. People are not pushed around by witches or influences from the stars. Whatever anybody does can generally be accounted for in terms of natural causes, whether events in the nervous system or events in the environment.

The idea that behavior results from natural causes may seem commonplace to some people and abstract to others. But the idea has a lot to do with our success in understanding what a person does, and why. If we forget this idea we may say, "Well, he jumped overboard because his number came up." Or, "He didn't pass the advancement exam because he's not a Navy type."

Such thinking will never improve our ability to understand or influence human behavior. It is only a short step from wearing a rabbit's foot for luck or saying a magic incantation to get a disliked mate transferred. Instead of leaning on fate, luck, or evil spirits, we must expect and find natural causes for behavior.

BEHAVIOR IS DIRECTED TO ACHIEVE A GOAL

Human behavior can be explained to a large degree by the needs people have. The general notion is that people do things because they have specific needs that they seek to satisfy. For example, a man seeks food because he has a need for food, or he seeks success because he has a need for approval or power.

Needs are driving forces of life. They energize behavior. They push. They are constantly behind behavior, influencing a person's choice of behavior. A need is a type of tension a person constantly carries around with him.

We can think of human behavior as a person's constant attempts to reduce tensions—to get needs satisfied. To satisfy his needs, man directs his behavior toward a goal that is tension reducing. For example, you need money so you can buy an automobile. You direct your behavior (working, for instance) to achieve your goal (obtaining a car).

You carry many tensions at all times with you. They vary in kind and intensity with the particular situation. The relatively simple needs for food and water serve as examples of how needs work.

Hunger or the need for food is a tension. When you become hungry, your stomach muscles actually contract to produce that hungry feeling. These contractions continue until the stomach gets some food into it. After you start eating, the tension gradually disappears and the hunger goes away for awhile.

Suppose you are thirsty. You may simply take a glass of water, or go to the club for a beer. You take appropriate action to satisfy your need for liquid. If you aren't very thirsty, you probably won't mind too much if water isn't readily available, or if the club is closed. But if you are really thirsty, you begin to concentrate on finding water or liquid, almost to the

exclusion of everything else. At the very extreme, a man thirsting for days in the desert begins to think of nothing but water; everything he does is motivated by his need for water, and all his resources are directed to achieving this goal.

Some of the characteristics of human behavior now begin to emerge. It is caused by a need or tension that is unfulfilled, and this need mobilizes the energy needed for reaching a goal that will satisfy the need and reduce the tension. If one solution fails, we try another, mobilizing more and more energy as the need becomes more intense. Gradually we exclude everything that does not help us reach the goal.

In general, human behavior follows this pattern:

- Behavior is caused by a need which mobilizes the energy necessary to reach an appropriate goal.

- As the need becomes more intense, efforts to achieve the goal become more vigorous.

- With increased intensity of need, behavior is selectively narrowed down to those actions that seem to hold most promise of reaching the goal.

For man's more complicated needs — his need to be somebody, for example, he must often seek a long time to find a satisfactory way to fulfill this need. He may try some misguided ways, such as bragging a lot, soft soaping his way to getting advanced, or running down his shipmates to show that he is superior to them. If he is wise, he eventually finds that the most positive and successful way to be somebody is to do his work well and to gain the respect and acceptance of his fellow workers. When he hits upon this way of satisfying his need, he may reduce his tension and become more satisfied. Again, the causes work the same way: tension → directed behavior → satisfaction → reduced tension.

BEHAVIOR IS COMPLEX

Needs seldom work one by one. In an individual's behavior many needs are at work over a long period of time, and at any given time several needs are interacting simultaneously. Rarely can we account for a person's actions by naming a single need. The behavior of a person who is hungry, interested in company, and also anxious to improve his status is likely a compromise of these needs. A person will often seek a way of behaving that will satisfy all these needs at once, though it is possible he may not find any such adjustment.

To illustrate, BMC Graham dines at the CPO club with his family. At one and the same time, he can be satisfying many needs: for survival (he is hungry); for safety (he is not worried about the safety conditions of the club); for belonging (he is in the midst of his happy family) and for esteem (he feels important and can dine well).

Or take RM Miller, single, who is attending a junior college under the Associate Degree Completion (ADCOP) Program. His goal is to become a commissioned officer. He spends long hours at his studies, takes and passes required courses, tries to have a certain amount of social or extracurricular life, and saves his money. He knows that when he graduates from the college, he must take additional evening courses when he reports to his full-time military billet. He knows that if he gets married when he graduates his future will be complicated financially. But, balancing all the pluses and minuses, he keeps moving toward his long-range goal. He is willing to suffer a certain amount of hardship, inconvenience, and deprivation to reach it.

These two examples of behavior illustrate some of the important characteristics of complex behavior. The need to dine well in the club is an acquired need, even though it satisfies a built-in biological need. The need to be a commissioned officer is also an acquired need that can generate a wide range of behavior over a long period of time. Both of these needs demand satisfaction, in the sense that they mobilize the energy of the body's equipment to reach the goal, and the goal when reached may also satisfy a complex of other needs.

Often we cannot fully identify the needs that drive us forward. We say we want a new car to save on repair bills and depreciation; we are not likely to admit that we desire a new car to impress our neighbors and friends, and to enhance our view of ourselves. In this sense some of the drives that direct our behavior are buried in our subconscious.

In addition, we become highly selective in being conscious of those needs that are most important and acceptable to us while banishing discomforting and conflicting thoughts. In the same way, we selectively tend to judge outside

actions in terms of what is most comforting or important to us. Man directs his behavior to protect his inner feelings of importance and he tries to avoid situations that he perceives as painful, punishing, or threatening to his feelings of esteem. His behavior is protective and defensive against these perceived threats such as another person's disapproval, censure, or dislike. A man's needs are for his mental and emotional well-being as well as for his physical health.

With these points in mind, we can view complex behavior as the result (but not the sum) of many similar and conflicting needs operating simultaneously and interacting with each other.

We cannot see or measure a need; we infer what is happening from observations of a person's behavior. We know that when we experience a need we attempt to satisfy it; that is, we are aroused to action, and there must be energy mobilized for this action. We also know that we are aroused because we need something, and usually we can identify this goal, or at least we ordinarily know what will satisfy us. Furthermore, the longer the need is unsatisfied, the more important the goal usually becomes. The goals of behavior may be generated either by conscious and/or subconscious needs. Finally, biological needs may arise singly; we are hungry or thirsty or tired at separate times. In contrast, the more complicated needs, rarely, if ever, work one at a time; and ordinarily a wide range of needs operate simultaneously.

Complex behavior is variable and persistent—but within limits. It is often influenced by habits, cultural influences, and individual differences. We seek a satisfactory way of behaving that we can apply in many situations.

Normally, we are not continually facing situations where we have to work out a completely new way of behaving. Our attitudes, values, interests, standards, and habits interact together to form a general pattern of how we shall act in most given situations. These are our basic tools for successful living in a complex society and vary from one individual to another.

Finally, it is part of man's dignity to place limitations on his behavior. We can postpone immediate satisfaction for long-term satisfaction. We can accept a stirred-up state of present discomfort in expectation of future gains. To obtain ultimate relief from pain, a man will take medicine that momentarily makes him very ill. People endure present hardships and deprivations if they see it leading to a future good that outweighs present disadvantage. A father may go without a new suit or entertainment to give his son a college education. To gain much, men will suffer much—but they must see the future satisfaction as worth the price.

Conversely, the expectation of present satisfaction may outweigh the advantages of postponing satisfaction. For a seaman who goes UA, the present satisfaction has overridden the combined advantages of obeying the rules and being a seaman who keeps out of trouble.

Much of our behavior involves a choice, a weighing of the pros and cons of immediate satisfaction against future benefits. Sometimes we may vote for the present, with unfortunate results; often we postpone the present for future good.

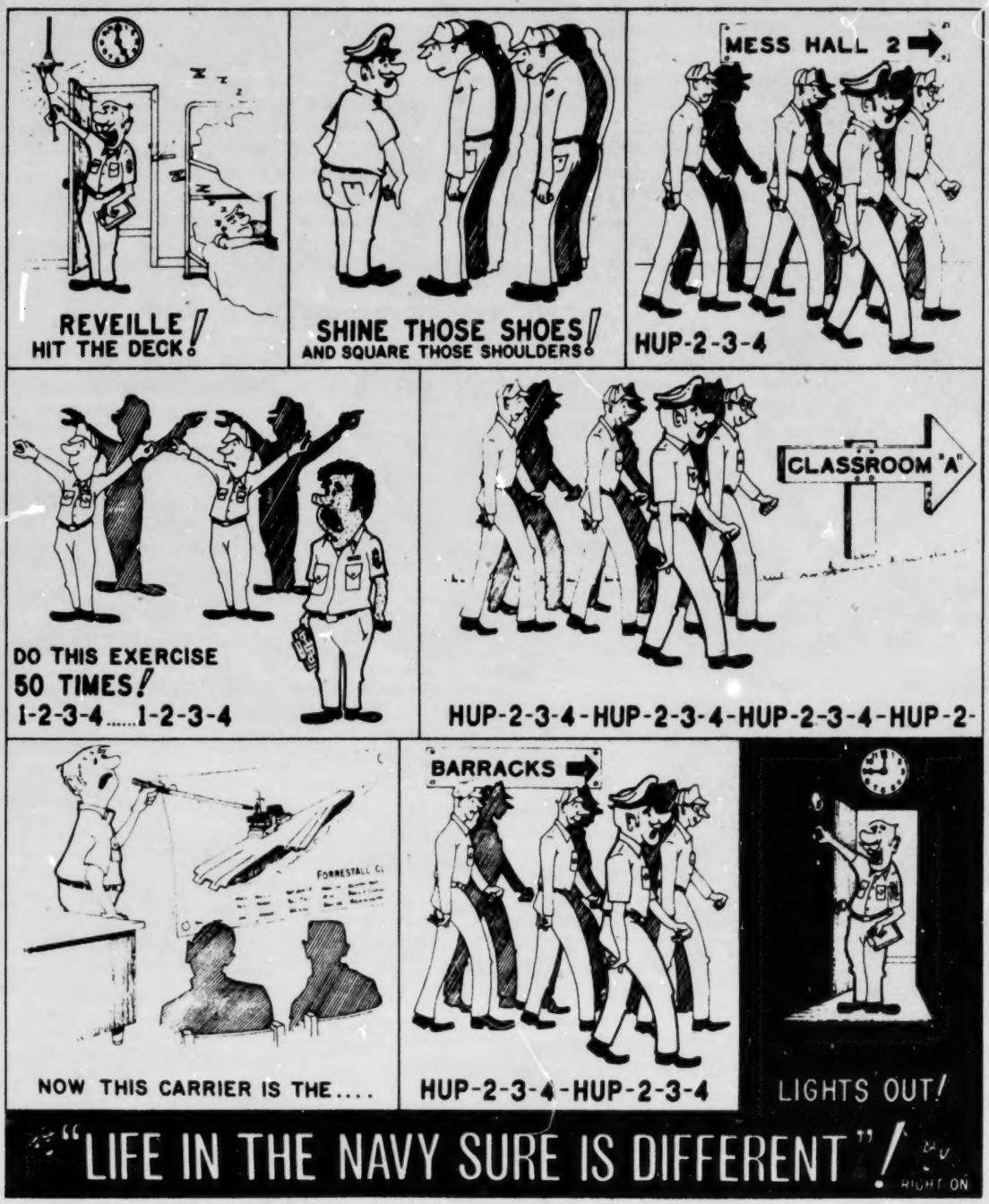
WHY HUMAN BEHAVIOR DIFFERS

Man learns some needs from the environment in which he lives. Living in certain surroundings he acquires needs that are dictated by his environment. His needs vary from one social environment to another.

A PERSON'S CULTURE INFLUENCES HIS BEHAVIOR

Each individual is born into a culture. People around him have certain established ways of going about life. They know what is good, what is bad, what is success and failure. They have definite notions about morality. They possess established habits of work, play, cleanliness, lovemaking, and eating. They think highly of certain institutions of worship and government that they have developed to meet common problems and common needs. These habits, values, assumptions, morals, customs, and institutions vary tremendously from one culture to another. The social climate in New Guinea is not the same as that in Tokyo, Kalamazoo, New Delhi, or Washington. The Navy also has its own culture and established values of what constitutes socially acceptable behavior.

The individual is always trying to adjust to the culture in which he is born and grows. The process of making this adjustment or peace with his environment is largely a process of his learning the "right" needs. You have a great deal to do with the ease with which a new person learns the "right" needs and the "right" behavior to make that person an acceptable member of the Navy. Does Figure 3-1 bring back memories of your recruit days?


REVEILLE!
HIT THE DECK!
SHINE THOSE SHOES!
AND SQUARE THOSE SHOULDERS!
MESS HALL 2
HUP-2-3-4
DO THIS EXERCISE
50 TIMES!
1-2-3-4.....1-2-3-4
CLASSROOM "A"
HUP-2-3-4-HUP-2-3-4-HUP-2-3-4-HUP-2-
NOW THIS CARRIER IS THE....
BARRACKS
HUP-2-3-4-HUP-2-3-4
LIGHTS OUT!
"LIFE IN THE NAVY SURE IS DIFFERENT"!

191.1

The cultural pattern into which a person is born has a tremendous influence on his physiological needs for hunger, thirst, rest, and sleep. Take hunger again. A person eats to survive, but the questions of what sort of food, when, and under what circumstances can only be answered if we know about the prohibitions and preferences the individual has learned while living in a particular culture. The individual's physiological needs are timed and trained by the daily routine of his family, his nation, and his culture.

The influence of a person's culture is just as great on the needs people learn. Instead of physiological necessities, these needs are acquired as a person goes about the process of living. Culture determines the needs themselves and also teaches the individual how, when, and where to let the needs operate.

Take self-assertiveness — the desire to assert oneself, to obtain standing and position. In America we regard this need as a basic part of human nature. Perhaps a major characteristic of Americans is the need for status, achievement, and superiority. But God didn't make Americans that way. They learned it. The prestige motive is almost universal. But there are some other cultures that do not like individual superiority. The best thing they can say about a person is that nobody ever hears anything about him. Competition, the thing self-assertiveness thrives on, is practically unknown.

In our culture there is no denying the general need for self-assertiveness. And a minute's thought will convince anyone that our culture has fairly definite rules, learned by most Americans, about what "success" or "superiority" is and what means may be used to achieve it. The individual in our culture who lacks this outlook on superiority would be peculiar to the extreme. And an American thrown into a different culture might be regarded as insane.

A PERSON'S IMMEDIATE SITUATION INFLUENCES HIS BEHAVIOR

Outside forces such as conditions in the environment influence the needs of people. In wartime, for example, a combat sailor's most important need is for survival. His basic physiological needs take precedence. In times of depression, having a job to provide life's basic necessities is the paramount need of many people. On the other hand, in times of prosperity, when a man is reasonably certain of holding a job that pays enough to provide an adequate standard of living for himself and his family, his needs often shift from these needs to other needs like enjoying a vacation with his family or friends, having friends over for a Saturday night cook-out, or taking a course at night to further his education. This is not to say that survival needs cease being important but that a person's attention turns to other needs upon satisfaction of his survival needs.

The needs of an individual change with his particular situation. Take a second class petty officer, married, who is doing all right on his present salary until his wife has their first child. With the additional expense, his needs may shift back to life's necessities such as food and shelter. The same thing happens if an unexpected family illness puts a strain on his family budget. This point may help you to understand your subordinates' behavior. For example, the second class previously mentioned contributed cheerfully and willingly to the Navy Relief Drive last year. But this year, he contributed grudgingly or didn't want to contribute anything. You might think he is uncooperative unless you know that he has additional family expenses this year and is struggling to make ends meet.

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES INFLUENCE BEHAVIOR

People differ widely in their needs even though they grow up in the same culture and belong to the same social group within the culture. Though we generalize about the needs of the American culture, we still need to consider the unique individuals involved.

Looking at each person has practical applications for the leader. A new man is assigned to your unit. You are naturally interested in finding out what sort of guy he is. So you look up his record and find that he is (a) American (b) of Swedish ancestry (c) a high school graduate, and (d) was born on a farm in Iowa. These are the facts in his record but what do you know about his needs? You know that he needs food, air, water, as does any other human being. You can

guess that he will be interested in money and in success and in having a few friends. But will he be a disciplinary problem? How ambitious is he? How will he get along with his shipmates? Will he fight at the drop of a hat? You do not know much about these things until you study the man himself. His "human nature" is not exactly like any other "human nature" you ever saw before.

No two individuals are born identical. Identical twins come close, but even there we find minor differences. And no two individuals ever have identical environments. The environment may seem identical to outsiders but it is not the same to the people involved. The environment a person lives in is the environment as it appears to him. And the way it appears to him depends on his unique heredity and on his unique previous experience.

The following illustration from Sinclair Lewis' "Work Of Art" tells how two brothers reacted to the same family environment.

> "My father," said Ora, "was a sloppy, lazy, booze-hoisting old bum, and my mother didn't know much besides cooking, and she was too busy to give me much attention, and the kids I knew were a bunch of foul-mouthed loafers that used to hang around the hoboes up near the water tank, and I never had a chance to get any formal schooling, and I got thrown on my own as just a brat. So naturally I've become a sort of vagabond that can't be bored by thinking about his 'debts' to a lot of little shop-keeping lice, and I supposed I'm inclined to be lazy, and not too scrupulous about the dames and the liquor. But my early rearing did have one swell result. Brought up so unconventionally, I'll always be an Anti-Puritan. I'll never deny the joys of the flesh. . ."
>
> "And my father," said Myron, "was pretty easy-going and always did like drinking and swapping stories with the boys, and my mother was hard-driven taking care of us, and I heard a lot of filth from the hoboes up near the water tank. Maybe just sort of as a reaction I've become almost too much of a crank about paying debts, and fussing over my work, and being scared of liquor and women. But my rearing did have one swell result. Just by way of contrast, it made me a good, sound, old-fashioned New England Puritan."

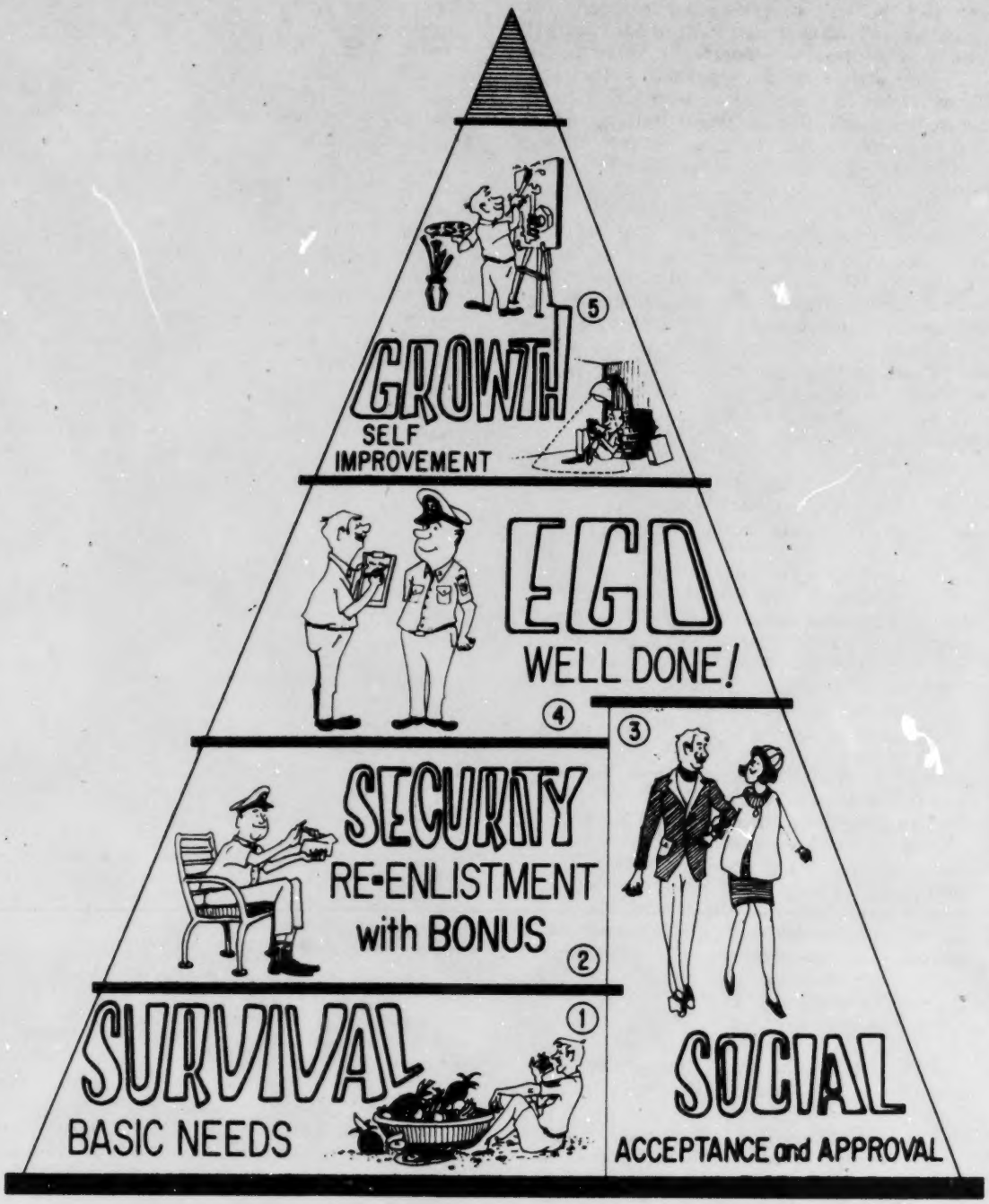
Individuals in the same culture, even in the same family, differ enormously in the strength and variety of their needs. One man has a constant burning desire to increase his professional or military status. The need to get ahead is his paramount need, flavoring all his activities, helping determine who his friends will be, whom he will marry, how much he will work, his relations with his superiors and his subordinates. Another man may have such a strong need for sociability that he chooses friends instead of "success," that "getting ahead" is relatively unimportant. One man needs food or sex much more often and in greater quantities than does another. One man spends a lifetime seeking economic security while another hunts for adventure and variety.

CLASSES OF HUMAN NEEDS

Each person is different from any other person. Although each person has unique needs, people have many needs in common. People, as they grow and develop, are subject to similar experiences in the family, the school, and society. Therefore, despite wide individual differences, people within our culture display certain common characteristics.

Identifying and classifying the needs that influence human behavior according to their relative importance are important tools in understanding human behavior. We need a classification simple enough to be practical yet broad enough to cover observed behavior. At best, any possible classification cannot be all-inclusive because some needs defy classification in neat categories and the comparative value of needs do fluctuate.

All people have five common needs. These needs may be pictured on a triangle, or pyramid, with the basic needs lying at the base with the increasingly more complex needs layered toward the top. Starting from the bottom, the needs arranged in order of their relative importance are (a) survival, (b) security, (c) social, (d) ego, and (e) growth.


5
GROWTH
SELF IMPROVEMENT
EGO
WELL DONE!
4
3
SECURITY
RE-ENLISTMENT with BONUS
2
1
SURVIVAL
BASIC NEEDS
SOCIAL
ACCEPTANCE and APPROVAL

191.2

After each discussion of the security, social, status, and self-fulfillment needs, we shall describe the leadership behavior of people who are continually motivated by that type need. Warning: each leader type is considered in pure form, even though we seldom find such hard-and-fast cases. Most people tend to possess some of the characteristics of each of these types. Admittedly, this is a theoretical treatment but there is much evidence that the dominant level of motivation explains a great deal of behavior.

As you read, you can probably identify persons who appear to conform to the type described. But the intent is to encourage you to identify your own needs, behavior, and goals.

SURVIVAL NEEDS

The survival needs are the built-in needs that are related to physical survival and include such things as air, food, water, and shelter. They are basic needs and are placed at the first level because of their power to cause our behavior. Suppose you were forced under water. Your need for air will compel you to the most violent physical efforts to get back to the surface for air.

You, as an honest, law-abiding citizen would never steal. Yet if you could obtain no food for four or five days, and then you had the opportunity to steal a loaf of bread, what would you do? When the survival needs are not satisfied, they induce a person to go to great extremes to meet them. When such needs are felt they motivate more strongly than any other type of need.

The prime importance of survival needs is not evident in the day-to-day life of the average Navy man or woman. Usually they have these needs satisfied in the course of routine duty because they are rarely exposed to prolonged hunger or thirst. But, if such needs go unsatisfied over a long period of time and threaten one's survival, attempts to satisfy them will completely dominate behavior and mobilize all the capacities and energy that a human being possesses.

It is true that man lives for bread alone—when there is no bread; but what happens when there is plenty of bread? We cannot make the emergency picture a typical one and measure all man's goals and desires by his behavior during extreme deprivation. Once the physical needs for survival are satisfied, they no longer dominate behavior. Other needs then influence man's behavior.

SECURITY NEEDS

The security needs come into play when we have met most of our physical needs. When we are no longer worried about today's needs we become concerned about tomorrow's breakfast or next winter's shelter. However, the average Navy person in ordinary times is not too concerned with these safety needs as the Navy takes steps to protect him from the grosser forms of violence, disease, famine, and poverty. The sense of safety in a smoothly running unit is usually taken for granted. Yet a Navy member expresses safety needs in the desire for a stable assignment, for safe working conditions, for money in the bank, and for consistent leadership. For many Navy people, the idea of a civilian depression constitutes a threat to safety, and a recession can reactivate their safety needs which normally lie dormant.

Security needs are closely related to an orderly, stable, predictable environment in which unexpected, unmanageable, and dangerous events seldom happen. The familiar is preferred to the unfamiliar, the known to the unknown. Security needs usually do not operate unless a man is threatened or endangered, and then they take over violently. Panic, for instance, can result from the unreasoning attempts of many people to satisfy their safety needs at the same time as in a fire. But except in such crisis or emergencies, the normal person is more concerned with satisfying other needs.

Some people never get beyond the level of satisfying security needs. Anything new is dangerous; any change in the routine means a step into the dangerous unknown. They tend to subordinate everything else in life to their need for safety.

The Security Motivated Leader

What about a leader who seeks security above all? He plays it safe in everything he does,

putting out enough to get by and no more. He is well organized and rigid in his thinking and habits; he tends to look down on those who are not as organized as he.

To him, the boss is omnipotent. Anything that pleases his superior is right and important to the safety seeker, since the boss controls his welfare. Pleasing the boss and keeping one's job are in themselves not damaging. However, when one's motives are primarily seeking safety, the basic requirements for effective leadership are missing. The welfare of others has no meaning to him, cooperation is just a word, and dedication to a cause is nonsense. He often attaches no significance to fundamental rights of others. Self-respect, importance, and the need to realize one's true potential are practically nonexistent in him.

Many of us may have some of the characteristics of the seeker-after security. How far would you go to conceal a mistake from your superior? What slanting of the facts would you practice to get a 4.0 on your Performance Evaluation Sheet? Would you permit your associates to be handicapped by your efforts to cover up your own mistakes? Would you agree with your boss even though you have good reason to disagree? Do you prefer not to rock the boat?

You should realistically examine your own security needs. Although the effective leader takes steps to meet the demands of his job, to have a roof over his head, and to insure his car, home, and life, he is motivated by his security needs only when they are threatened.

SOCIAL NEEDS

If both the survival and the safety needs are adequately satisfied, then emerge the social needs — a broad term for love, acceptance, and approval by others. At this stage a person feels keenly the absence or lack of friends. He seeks friendly relations with people in general and for a place in the various groups with which he associates. He desires to be liked and wanted as a person. He wants to belong.

There are two aspects to the social needs. The first involves love and affection between individuals, as expressed between sweethearts, husband and wife, parents, children, and very close friends. It is the intimate sharing of life with another or others, and involves a reciprocal relationship.

The second aspect of social needs makes us want a stable, accepted relationship with other people as a practicing, functioning member of a group of some kind, and this covers all the formal and informal groups of people with whom we work, live, and play. We tend to identify ourselves with particular groups and to seek acceptance from them, often subtly modifying our behavior to meet the standards of the group.

The social needs revolve around one central idea: the need to be liked and wanted not only by our intimate family and friends but by the people with whom we associate in work or play.

In the Navy, the group concept — that is, two or more people doing a job together — can become the means of satisfying the subordinates' needs for acceptance and belonging. The group concept rising from the need to belong is one of the foundation stones of effective leadership.

The Socially Motivated Leader

What about the leader who is strongly motivated by the need to belong? One type is the insecure leader who constantly strives to be liked. He is frequently a very popular person, who is constantly motivated to do what will cause his associates to like him. If, in addition, he is competent, he may be a very effective leader. He speaks warmly to superiors, subordinates, and associates. He uniformly tries to take action that will be approved by everyone concerned.

A leader who is socially insecure has difficulty because his dedication is to gain affection, not to fulfill the mission. Sooner or later, he will be in a position where loyalty to his superiors will demand action that will not be popular with his people. Under these conditions, he is likely to resolve his problem by seeking to do what is most popular with his people.

Generally, the popularity seeker loses his status when the group has a real goal. Once a group is mission-oriented, the good leader must be the source of helping the group accomplish the mission. Being a "nice guy" is not enough. He may still be liked, but he is not the leader.

EGO NEEDS

All the needs that make us feel more important fall within the category of esteem needs. In this area of increasingly complex higher needs

it is more and more difficult to make exact distinctions. One need shades into another and it is almost impossible to isolate one single need from the others. The need to belong and to be identified with a group is just a short step from the need for status and recognition by the group. The former implies passive acceptance of us as a person by others; the latter involves not only acceptance but active recognition of our talents and abilities—as we ourselves see them.

Whether it's winning a contest or repairing a jet engine, there is a basic satisfaction for all of us in achieving or doing a job well. Our inner satisfaction is enhanced if other people recognize our achievements and applaud our efforts. Most people want recognition for their efforts. The approval of an audience often stimulates them to do their best work. Doing any job well can be a powerful motivator for the man who seeks status and recognition.

Man tends to build up a picture of himself, a picture that demands he do certain things or move in certain directions to maintain his self-respect. Depending on the circumstances, a man can see himself in different roles and act consistently with them. To his fellow disbursing clerks, he is a whiz with figures, and to his disbursing officer, he is a model of exactness. To his barracks mates he is a good bowler, whereas for his girl friend, he is the charming, nonchalant man of the world. Our ability to carry off successfully many roles to our own satisfaction is essential to our self-respect.

There are two aspects to the ego needs: the need for status and recognition by others and the need to maintain our self-respect with all the social and moral standards that are involved. Satisfaction of the esteem needs in their various ramifications leads to feelings of self-confidence, worth, strength, capability, and adequacy that build a person's sense of being useful and necessary.

Because of individual differences, the quest to satisfy the need for esteem may exhibit varying forms of behavior. A scientist, for example, who is primarily motivated by needs for prestige in scientific or academic circles may be warm, likable, and sociable; or he may be cold, unpleasant, and hermit-like depending solely for recognition of his research. The higher the level of motivation, the less easy it is for us to speculate about pure types; therefore, let's arbitrarily consider the person who seeks power and prestige above all else, and see what he might be like—as a general type.

The Ego Motivated Leader

As a leader, this type of person is likely to be fairly successful. He seeks responsibility and likes to be boss. He has boundless energy for achieving things that will gain him recognition. He will fight for his men if it results in their admiration of him. But his criterion of success is recognition. Rank and high effectiveness reports are important to him as symbols of success and prestige.

Such a power-driven person is usually successful when his work is challenging and he is good at it. As a member of a team, however, he is never satisfied to be just another member. He must run the show and be recognized as the star, and that is his difficulty. He is motivated not by genuine interest in the mission but by his need to be recognized.

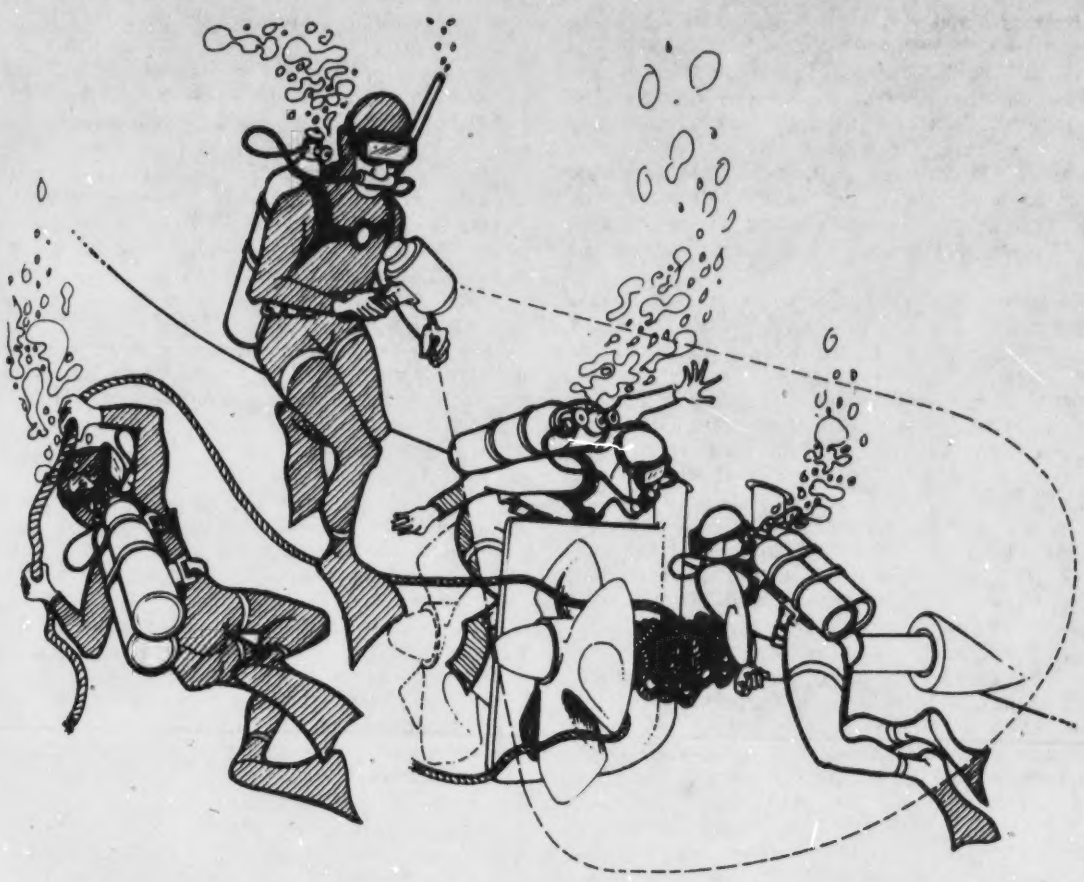
This sort of leader is usually effective. He is firm but fair, agressive, confident, alert, ambitious, decisive, and responsible; he has many characteristics ordinarily associated with the effective leader.

But this type of leader has a serious flaw. He encourages dependence; people under him lose their drive and enthusiasm. He does not concentrate on giving his subordinates self-importance and prestige. Under his leadership, the members of the group may be fairly happy and effective, but in the long run they do not feel satisfied with their lot.

In presenting this extreme case of the drive for power and prestige, we do not want to imply that esteem needs are not admirable. On the contrary, they lie behind some of man's finest achievements. In addition, man's need to be the sort of person he thinks he is or should be underlies much of his day-to-day activity. His search for explanations and a working philosophy of life, his attempts to maintain his self-respect in the face of incredible barriers, and his efforts to make the most of his talents in any situation—all these flow from his need for self-esteem.

SELF-FULFILLMENT AND GROWTH NEEDS

Even when people have satisfied most of their esteem needs, they seem to feel the urge to move on to a higher level. Here man approaches the fullest possible integration of himself, in which all his talents, capacities, and potentialities are put to use. He yearns to be a Navy frogman, an Olympic champion, or whatever he believes he can do best.



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Or, realizing his limitations, he wants to be the finest possible person he can be and to realize his true destiny within his limitations. In either case, he moves toward the optimum development of the stature of which he is capable. An inner need to grow and develop and to be his unique self is his all-powerful motivation; he is not as dependent on the outer world of people and things for the satisfaction of his needs as are most people. His motivating goal is within himself.

Self-fulfillment (sometimes called self-actualization) should not be confused with outstanding achievement, which may exist on the level of esteem needs. Nor should it be equated with high intelligence or great ambition. The average person has as much need and capacity for self-fulfillment as does the outstanding leader or doer in any field. What one can be, one will try to be, and this growth-goal will vary from person to person.

On the scale of needs, self-growth needs come at the top. In general, all the other needs must be adequately satisfied before the need to develop one's full potential and talents becomes a strong influence on behavior. Most people must gratify to a minimum acceptable level their basic needs for survival, security, social belonging, and self-esteem before they can fully use and develop their talents, capabilities, and potential. That, in essence, is what self-growth means—development to the full stature of which a person is capable.

The Self-fulfillment Motivated Leader

A discussion of the characteristics of the self-fulfilled leader can give us insights into

the qualities possessed by the leader who has reached this stage of growth and development.

RELATION TO REALITY. — The type leader who strives for self-fulfillment has an accurate and comfortable perception of reality in people and situations. He displays an unusual ability to judge people correctly. He often displays an uncanny ability to decide whether their motives are honest, sincere, and wholesome. Also, his reactions to people are less affected by his own wishes, fears, and prejudices than are those of most persons.

As he is able to grasp the full impact of reality, he does not feel frightened by the unknown. He does not have to spend time protecting himself from imagined dangers but remains confident and unafraid. Decisions fraught with tentativeness and uncertainty for the average person can be for this leader a pleasantly stimulating challenge to explore the unknown or to chart new courses. As a leader, experimentation with new ideas and new approaches is part of his normal habit of thought.

A self-fulfilling individual shows a high degree of acceptance of himself, others, and human nature as they are, not as he thinks they should be. He can admit his own short-comings and mistakes and live comfortably with them; he expects others to do the same. He chooses to be judged as the person he really is, feeling no need to impress others by subterfuge and posturing. Accepting himself and others as they really are, he is not deeply disturbed by the self-seeking of others. Human frailties are a fact, and he accepts them as such. He doesn't react against human weakness but attempts to deal with it realistically as part of the overall scheme of things.

SPONTANEITY. — The self-fullfilling person is relatively spontaneous in his outward behavior and far more spontaneous than most people in his inner life, thoughts, and impulses. He behaves simply and naturally, without artificiality or straining for effect.

In the military situation, the ideal leader will go along with minor irritations and do his best to correct them within the extent of his resources. But let a crisis or a major issue arise, and he will sometimes come up with unconventional and imaginative solutions.

Here we see the true character of a man of principle in operation. Sense of mission dictates what is acceptable and what is unacceptable. People do not have to share his ideas; he values his own ideas as those of only one person. So long as the job is accomplished, he is not disturbed if people don't do things the way he would do them.

On the other hand, let a matter of vital principle be involved, and he will fight relentlessly. Unfairness in dealing with people, wanton waste of funds, or irresponsible stupidity that affects an assignment will arouse him to fight even against overwhelming odds. He simply will not tolerate a lack of sense of mission at any level. He can lead in a crisis situation even when some of his own needs are being thwarted.

PROBLEM-CENTERING. — The self-fulfilling leader focuses on a broad problem outside himself. He is dedicated to his mission, and this dedication is the dominant factor in his leadership effectiveness.

Such a leader customarily lives and works within a framework of values that are broad and universal rather than petty and local. He always keeps long term objectives in mind. To others he gives the impression of being above small things, living in a world with broad horizons and a wide breath of vision. This seems to impart to him a certain serenity and lack of worry over immediate concerns that make life easier not only for himself but for all who are associated with him.

His concept and sense of mission are the central unifying motives of his behavior, giving him a focus and direction for his energies. He is dedicated to ideals for which he is willing to fight.

DETACHMENT AND PRIVACY. — Whereas the average American usually avoids being completely alone, this leader can endure solitude without discomfort. In fact, he may like solitude and privacy and seek them out.

This quality of detachment often makes it possible for him to remain unruffled and undisturbed by things that cause turmoil in others. He can take personal misfortune and disappointments without reacting violently, and he can somehow maintain his dignity even in undignified surroundings and situations.

In time of crisis or grave situations, such a person can be a Gibraltar for those around him. His ability to stand back and take a clear view of things make him an impregnable fortress. He can often hold together a disintegrating situation by the mere coolness of his presence.

From his detachment and serenity, this type leader can be relatively independent of his

culture and surroundings. He is so largely self-contained that he can maintain his stability and happiness in the face of hardships, blows, and deprivations. He has become strong enough to be less dependent than most people for the good opinion of others or even of their affection. Honors, rewards, and overt display of esteem have become less important to him than his development and inner growth.

FRESHNESS OF APPRECIATION.—Life rarely grows stale for this type leader. He continually looks at life and the world around him with fresh and appreciative eyes. A job well done, a sunset, a piece of music, a kind act—these can give him the sort of pleasure that he would find difficult to describe. This acute richness of subjective experience probably rises out of the closer perception of the fresh and concrete aspects of reality. For the self-fulfilling person, each experience, no matter how often repeated, is potentially a new one.

What does this mean for the self-fulfilling leader? Pure routine can take on the aspects of challenge. To see a group of people harmoniously working together can be a constant source of happiness; to see an individual grow and develop can be immensely satisfying. While striving for long-range goals, such a leader finds real satisfaction in the daily accomplishment of his mission.

FEELING OF HUMANITY.—This leader generally has a deep feeling of identification and affection for human beings, despite occasional feelings of anger, or impatience, for particular individuals. He has a genuine desire to help his fellowmen; for him all men are truly brothers, however weak, however strong. Though he is often dismayed and even enraged by the shortcomings of people, his underlying sense of kinship for them remains.

Despite his sense of detachment, he is capable of deeper affection and greater abnegation of self in personal relationships than other people would consider possible. He can be friendly with anyone of suitable character regardless of class, education, political belief, race, or color. He honestly respects people who can teach him something, and he will not rob any individual of his human dignity.

PHILOSOPHICAL SENSE OF HUMOR.—This kind of leader is likely to have a sense of humor that is not the ordinary kind. He may consider most unfunny what the average man thinks is hilarious. For him, humor does not consist in making fun of someone, in laughing at someone else's shortcomings, or in retelling a smutty joke. His humor consists in poking fun at human beings in general when they are foolish or try to be big when they are actually small. Most of his jokes will be wry comments on man and the universe. They usually have a thoughtful philosophical humor which draws forth a smile more than a laugh. They grow out of a situation spontaneously, and often can never be repeated to gain exactly the same effect.

CREATIVENESS.—Each self-fulfilling person shows in one way or another a special kind of creativeness or inventiveness that has a certain flair. This is not the special talent of a creative genius, but rather a spirit or attitude with which the self-fulfilling person approaches life and everything he does. In this sense, there can be creative people in any rank or rating or in any walk of life.

IMPERFECTIONS.—Let us not assume that this type leader is a paragon of virtue, strength, and intelligence—a shining knight absolutely blameless in every respect. He, too, is subject to human failings. In his intense concentration and detachment from the routine scene, he may become absentminded or forget ordinary social politeness. But these are the failings of strength, not weakness; these are the failings of a man who, having attained almost perfect inner equilibrium, is still subject to human frailty, particularly in the eyes of those who have not attained such equilibrium and who sometimes find it exasperatingly admirable but most difficult to understand.

To the extent that any of his shortcomings militate against his role as leader and his need to identify with his group, this type leader must be on his guard either to overcome them or to keep them well under control. He sees clearly that control of his shortcomings is dictated by his sense of mission and must be accomplished.

A self-fulfilling person is most likely to have the personality and behavior characteristics that we identify with successful leaders. The opportunity for growth is a challenge to any potential leader. As a petty officer grows in experience he handles increasing responsibilities, copes with rapid situational change, and handles the stresses of the hostile environment of combat. Your adequacy as a leader increases as you dedicate

yourself to self-improvement and professional growth. Your attitude, for example, has a great bearing upon your self-development.

Through a positive attitude, the petty officer approaches each task, situation, and group with a will to apply what he has learned, with a will to adjust his own actions when necessary, but with the full realization that nothing he does or allows others to do must in any way detract from accomplishing the mission.

Closely linked with a positive attitude is self-motivation. When you have a positive attitude, you are motivated to meet your duties and responsibilities as a petty officer and leader, regardless of your present duty assignment.

The burden of motivation and application rests with you. It is your responsibility to apply the principles of leadership in every situation. Knowledge, facts, techniques, and principles are of little value unless thay are applied. Analyze your situation to determine how well you apply what you have learned about leadership. Through practice you can improve your personal leadership and develop a program to attain your professional goals and objectives. Avail yourself of every opportunity from formal training to your day-to-day work to increase your leadership skills in understanding and dealing with your people. Try to increase your perceptiveness, to develop a greater interest in people, and to develop skill in human relations.

SUMMARY

Within any large organization, the variations among people is little short of astounding. People with their different values, beliefs, and habits present a challenge to your perception and understanding. It is important that you understand the various needs that people have to predict their behavior or how they are going to react in various situations. This also includes anticipating how your men are going to react to you personally, and to your actions. By predicting behavior, you can eliminate those actions likely to unnecessarily antagonize your men and use those which are most likely to result in favorable reactions. This ability to adapt, to regulate one's own behavior according to the particular situation, is one of the essential ingredients of good leadership.

The leader who can predict how his subordinates will react in a given situation has a substantial advantage over one who cannot. He is far better equipped to effectively lead his men and at the same time to maintain their efficiency at a high level.

Of course, no leadership training can teach you about the idiosyncrasies of individuals in your group. Individuals differ from one another, and the differences can be identified only by studying individuals in real-life situations. Nevertheless, as we have seen, there are certain needs that people share in common. The general knowledge of these needs is a cornerstone of leadership.

CHAPTER 4

INFLUENCING HUMAN BEHAVIOR

An essential tool of leadership is a knowledge of human nature. If you understand an individual's needs that direct and influence his behavior, you are better equipped to fulfill your leadership responsibilities. You are better able to understand both yourself and your group for you are subject to the same basic needs as your people.

HOW MAN'S BASIC NEEDS INFLUENCE HIS BEHAVIOR

The average American has acquired certain needs as a result of growing up in America, and he emerges into maturity as the end product of our culture. When his needs are aroused, he directs his behavior in ways he believes will best satisfy them. Let us take a closer look at the ways man's basic needs influence his behavior.

A HIGHER NEED IS GENERATED AS THE LOWER NEED IS SATISFIED

Survival needs appear first in the human, and he shares them with all animals. Man's need for food overshadows his other needs when he is hungry. Man's basic survival needs for food, air, and water are the most urgent and satisfaction cannot usually be postponed. Food and safety requirements can push needs for friends and for esteem into the background. Take the case of a man who is looking for a job. His safety or security needs likely dominate his behavior and his belonging and esteem needs do not influence his behavior to any great extent.

Man's higher needs to belong and to fulfill his potential arise only after his body and safety needs are satisfied. The lower needs are easier to satisfy, but the satisfactions are less pervasive. Food and safety in themselves do not seem to produce the happiness and sense of accomplishment that come with satisfaction of higher needs. The higher needs can be disregarded more easily, but when satisfied, they bring a greater sense of well-being. In general, survival, safety, and belonging needs vary less from individual to individual than do esteem and self-fulfilling needs.

The classification of needs and their relative importance imply that each lower need must be fully and separately satisfied before the next higher one can come into play. This is often true, but one goal can satisfy a great many needs, and certain needs in certain individuals may become deadened or undervalued. But the arrangement of needs in order of relative importance does account for much observable behavior.

A SATISFIED NEED CEASES TO INFLUENCE BEHAVIOR

Man may experience one or more types of needs at the same time or in rapid succession. We may experience needs at all levels in the same day. Generally speaking, our behavior will be influenced most strongly by the lower level need at any given moment. However, a need, when satisfied, no longer guides our behavior. Suppose your lunch period is delayed. If you are forced to work through your normal period, mild hunger will distract your attention from your job, with your distraction increasing the longer lunch is delayed. Finally, you break away from your work and you have a hefty lunch. Your distraction for food is removed until the hunger pangs appear again. Having satisfied your need for food, you might turn down a friend's offer of a doughnut snack and you might even resent the interruption. It is easy to conclude that if we do not need a certain thing, we do not work to get it while keeping in mind there is never a moment of life when we do not need something.

MAN'S HIGHER NEEDS FOR ESTEEM AND SELF-FULFILLMENT ARE NEVER COMPLETELY SATISFIED

Man's basic needs for food, water, shelter may be completely satisfied but man's needs for approval, recognition and achievement may never be completely satisfied. These higher needs are constant and continuing and thus always influence man's behavior. The man who has met most of his basic needs acquires these higher needs and he seeks satisfaction of these needs. Thus, the leader seeks ways in which he may help to satisfy his men's needs for esteem and self-fulfillment.

PEOPLE MAY BEHAVE IN DIFFERENT WAYS TO SATISFY THE SAME NEED

Man, in achieving his needs, directs his behavior in directions that he believes to be the most satisfying and rewarding to him. Thus, men's behavior to satisfy the same need may take different courses of action.

Suppose you perceive that your division officer regards high production to be the most important criterion for job success and advancement. You, to meet your need for approval and achievement, will probably concentrate on having a high production rate, even to the sacrifice of high quality. On the other hand, if you believe that your boss desires a high quality product, rather than high production, you will likely work to turn out a product that meets high quality standards, perhaps sacrificing a high production rate. You believe that a product of excellence is your key to success and approval. In these different situations, you adjust your behavior in ways that promise approval and recognition from your particular leader but your behavior takes different directions to achieve the same goal.

WHAT SHOULD I DO TO WIN MY DIVISION OFFICER'S APPROVAL ?
SHOW A LOT OF INITIATIVE OR WILL HE THINK I OVERSTEP MY BOUNDS ?
SIT BACK AND LET HIM CALL ALL THE SHOTS OR WILL HE THINK I DON'T CARE ?

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The leader should try to approach the ideal situation in which the work goal promises a person composite rewards of belonging, status, and getting ahead in accordance with his achievements and abilities. People generally work enthusiastically under these conditions, and when this striving takes place in an atmosphere of approval, the results may be even better. It thus behooves the leader to set meaningful, well-defined goals that both accomplish the work mission and enable his men to satisfy their needs and goals in ways that are rewarding to them.

THE LEADER LOOKS BEYOND A MAN'S OVERT BEHAVIOR TO DETERMINE THE BASIC NEED

Suppose a man in your office suddenly changes from an enthusiastic, motivated worker to one who is lackadasical and apathetic towards his work. Before jumping to the conclusion that he doesn't care about his job anymore, you, as his leader will want to take a closer look at the situation to determine the basic need behind his behavior. Does he have a financial problem that is threatening his family's security? Are his esteem needs threatened because you assigned him a menial job without any explanation?

There is a reason for his changed behavior and it is often a real challenge to you, as his leader, to determine the basic cause behind a man's overt behavior. Gaining an insight into his basic problem may help you to either solve the situation by taking corrective action or you may help him reach a satisfactory solution himself if the problem is outside the work situation. His problem is your concern if his behavior affects his work performance.

Discovering the need or combination of needs beyond a man's overt behavior helps you to get to the root of the problem. You are then better equipped to deal with the problem and to work out a satisfactory solution.

A MAN'S NEEDS ON THE JOB

MANY OF THE WORKER'S SURVIVAL AND SECURITY NEEDS ARE MET ON THE JOB

Most Navy people are able to meet their survival and security needs in the Navy. The Navy provides them food, shelter, and clothing and many benefits that help ensure their security such as guaranteed employment until their enlistment expires, hospitalization, dental care, and retirement pensions. In short, their survival and security needs do not greatly influence their behavior as they are generally satisfied. On the other hand, if living conditions are unsatisfactory, the need for adequate shelter then greatly motivates their behavior. A young recruit who is barely able to meet his finacial obligations and expenses for food, clothing, and housing is more concerned with his survival and security needs than he is with his needs for esteem, recognition, etc. Generally, however, the survival and security needs of most Navy personnel do not dominate their behavior. Of course, the Navy man in combat or who is facing disciplinary action feels security needs.

THE NEEDS FOR ESTEEM, STATUS, AND SELF-GROWTH MOTIVATE A WORKER'S BEHAVIOR

Once the survival and safety needs are satisfied, the needs to belong, to be esteemed, and to fulfill one's potential are activated and exert great influence on behavior.

These needs continually motivate behavior since they cannot ever be fully satisfied. Man's need for approval and acceptance never ceases. He continually desires recognition for his achievements. However, he must satisfy to a great extent his needs to belong and to have esteem by others before his highest need for self-fulfillment of his innate potential can influence his behavior. Thus, if you, as their leader, wish to motivate your people, you must look for ways that help them to satisfy their belonging, esteem, and self-fulfillment needs for these needs continually influence and direct their behavior.

BASIC ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT A MAN'S WILL TO WORK

UNDER PROPER CONDITIONS, A MAN WILL GENERALLY SEEK

Professional Growth In His Work

People desire to learn new skills and to progress to more challenging work assignments.

Job Responsibilities

People desire job responsibilities that use their technical knowledge and ability to perform efficiently.

Mastery Of The Job

People seek to become proficient in their jobs for mastery of their jobs adds to their sense of achievement.

A Feeling Of Pride In The Job

People find rewarding their sense of achievement from getting the job done efficiently.

Recognition For A Job Well Done

A man desires recognition for doing a job well for positive recognition increases his drive to succeed while recognition of only his mistakes diminishes his desire to achieve.

These basic assumptions listed above state that man given proper working experiences reacts positively and favorably to his work responsibilities. The key problem is identifying these work experiences.

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We have seen that man continually seeks to satisfy his needs. These needs are inherent to his nature and he constantly seeks to satisfy them while on the job as well as off the job.

Man reacts favorably and positively to his work when he believes that he can best fulfill his needs and goals through constructive courses of action that contribute to the success of his unit and organization. He perceives that his chances for success in satisfying his needs are increased through positive actions rather than negative actions such as minimum compliance, indifference, or hostility.

To motivate his men, the leader provides the opportunities for each worker to develop his abilities and talents. He helps them to increase their job skills. He allows them to use their judgment as they develop their skills and abilities.

The effective CPO who succeeds in these endeavors helps his men to be committed to the work and organizational goals. As his men meet their goals for esteem, recognition, and growth in mastering their work, they are more likely to voluntarily accept the work goals because these goals are rewarding to them. These rewards of esteem and recognition are the direct products of their efforts to meet the organization's goals.

Under these conditions, the leader does not have to depend solely on external controls, such as putting a subordinate on report, sending him to Captain's Mast, or continually reminding him of his duties.

External controls by the leader are sometimes necessary and appropriate but their frequent use combined with threats of punishment at best result in passive acceptance and may result in indifference or resistance to the work mission.

The effective petty officer continually strives to create work experiences that are rewarding to his men and that bring about their inner commitment to the work goals.

MAN'S WILL TO WORK COMES FROM WITHIN

What generates man's inner will to work so that external force is not necessary? Why do some people have this inner drive that spurs them on while others are passive or indifferent? Can the leader help put a "generator" inside a man so he operates on his own energies and does not need to be driven by external force?

A man who has his own generator is self-directed. We call him a motivated man. Taking a closer look at motivation, we find that the noun "motivation" comes from the word "motive" which, according to Webster, is "something (as a need or desire) that causes a person to act. . . Motive implies an emotion or desire operating on the will and causing it to act." All people are motivated to act as they have built-in needs or motives that they seek to satisfy. Of course, the direction of their behavior varies with their individual motives—their desires, ambitions, goals, fears, hates, and loves.

A leader may use external controls and force to direct his men but external force by itself cannot motivate them for motivation comes from within a person. As a motivated person on the job is self-starting and self-controlled, external force is generally not necessary. He takes the necessary action of his own accord. External controls push or move a man's behavior toward an organizational goal while a motivated man, in the work situation, himself exerts the push or drive to do his job. The leader's task is to provide the stimuli, opportunities, and incentives that unharness his men's inner drives to meet their work assignments.

Let us look further at the work experience—the nature of the work itself (the job content) and the external work factors (the job context)—to discover what motivates men on the job.

EXTERNAL WORK FACTORS PREVENT SOME WORKER DISSATISFACTION

An employee's morale is often described as his degree of job satisfaction and degree of job dissatisfaction. Let us first examine the external factors that affect job dissatisfaction. These dissatisfiers are:

- organizational policies and administration
- salaries
- relationships with superiors, peers, and subordinates
- working conditions
- supervision
- job security

These job elements are hygiene factors. Like washing your hands, they are factors that you, as a supervisor, should try to take care of to avoid trouble. Poor working conditions, such as unreasonable or unrealistic work schedules can cause discontent, resentment, and can result in everyone's lowered morale. For example, suppose that an unfair watch-standing policy is instituted. This is sure to affect the morale of the group and to cause some unhappiness, complaints, and irritation. However, though you work to make a fair watch-standing schedule and to set reasonable work schedules, you get only to the point of "no job dissatisfaction."

You may think that in the Navy situation you have little influence over workers' pay, working conditions etc. However, you help determine a

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man's rate of pay by your appraisal of him and your decision whether or not to recommend him for proficiency pay, or for advancement. Often you can improve working conditions. Suppose you have a worker who is left-handed. You can make sure that he has a desk location that takes his left-handedness into account. Sometimes, you cannot personally take care of hygiene factors such as an electrical system breakdown. But you can prevent some workers' dissatisfaction if your people know that you are doing all within your power to remedy such situations.

You cannot expect fair work procedures and good working conditions to motivate your men. If the hygiene factors are not taken care of, poor attitudes will appear but taking care of them will not motivate.

You can better understand this by remembering how people's needs operate. The dissatisfiers correspond generally to the physical, security, and social needs. Most Navy personnel can meet the majority of these needs. And a need, when satisfied, ceases to motivate. However, if these hygiene or job dissatisfaction preventive factors are neglected, these strong needs are aroused, causing dissatisfaction, and lowered morale.

THE JOB CONTENT CAN PROVIDE WORKER SATISFACTION AND MOTIVATION

The job satisfiers are found in the nature of the work itself or in the job content. These satisfiers are:

- achievement
- responsibility and personal initiative to carry out the job
- meaningful work
- recognition in terms of a job well done or personal accomplishment
- advancement or increased status

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These factors motivate people on the job. Note they relate to the esteem and self-growth needs. As we can never completely satisfy these needs, they have continuing power to motivate behavior. An employee is at the low point of the job satisfaction scale if he experiences little or no satisfaction in the nature of his work.

In any job there are both satisfiers and dissatisfiers present. An employee's morale on a given day may be strongly influenced by his working conditions or the supervision he experiences. But his dissatisfaction may or may not influence his production, depending on the strength of the job satisfiers that are present. For example, Seaman A, who is not experiencing much job satisfaction, complains to the Disbursing Officer about a mistake in his pay. If the mistake isn't corrected within a reasonable period, both his morale and production will likely suffer, for his job dissatisfiers exert a stronger force on his behavior and attitudes than do his job satisfiers. As his job dissatisfactions increase, his job satisfactions decrease. Now, let's take the case of Seaman B, who likewise finds a mistake in his pay check but who is experiencing much satisfaction in a job in which he has a sense of achievement and chance of advancement. In contrast to Seaman A, he is more likely to maintain his high morale and production rate for a longer period as his job satisfiers are stronger than his dissatisfiers.

So you try to keep the job dissatisfiers at a minimum and the job satisfiers at a maximum. This is the ideal work experience, not easily attained. To work toward this goal, you constantly keep in mind the hygiene factors of the work situation. You give daily attention to working conditions, strive to maintain good relationships with your superiors and members of your group and try to work out good solutions to matters under your immediate supervision. You thus hope to avoid job dissatisfactions in your group.

As the man in charge, you do all these things in the normal course of a day. They are expected of you. But, if one of your men is experiencing inequitable treatment resulting from a work regulation or policy, and you get it squared away, don't expect him to be motivated by gratitude. He will simply stop complaining for a while. On the other hand, if you make no provision to meet your men's needs for esteem and self-growth by recognizing good performance, by assigning work involving opportunity for achievement and real responsibility, etc. you need not expect much motivation from him. It may be difficult to build job satisfiers into their work experiences, but the results can be well worth your efforts.

INCREASING A MAN'S DRIVE TO DO HIS JOB

It might be helpful at this point for you to ask yourself such questions as "What makes me want to do a better job?" As you think back over your career you ask "Why did I go all-out to do a good job in billet A?" And, "Why did I do a so-so job in billet B?" What makes the difference?

To aid your self-analysis, select the five items from the list below which you believe are important in motivating you to do your best work.

- Getting along well with the people with whom I work
- Having a good supervisor
- Retirement and security benefits
- Feeling that my work is important
- Respect for me as a person
- Opportunity to do interesting work
- Good pay
- Opportunity for self-development and improvement
- High degree of freedom on the job
- Chance for advancement
- Knowing what's going on in the organization
- Chance to produce work of high quality
- Good physical working conditions
- Recognition from the boss when I do a good job
- Steady employment
- Getting good marks on my performance evaluation report so I know how I stand
- Leave, commissary, medical, and dental benefits
- Knowing I will be disciplined if I do a poor job
- Not having to work too hard
- Working under close supervision

Now, rank the five factors in order of importance to you.

You will find it interesting to compare the five motivational factors you selected with the five most often selected by other people according to the results of a survey.

They are as follows, in the order of importance:

1. Feeling that my work is important
2. Opportunity to do interesting work
3. Opportunity for self-development and improvement
4. Good pay
5. Chance for advancement

The next four motivating factors, ranked in order of response, are:

6. Respect for me as a person
7. Chance to produce work of high quality
8. Knowing what is going on in the organization
9. High degree of freedom on the job

The factors most often put at the bottom of the list are: knowing I will be disciplined if I do a poor job, not having to work too hard, and working under close supervision.

The survey results show that the job content, or the nature of the job, has a greater motivating effect than the job context, or the factors outside the job itself.

Having identified some motivational factors, let's look at what you can do to provide the stimuli that help motivate a person to do a good job.

RECOGNIZE A MAN'S NEEDS FOR ESTEEM AND SELF-GROWTH

Treat him as a person of value and worthy of your respect. Provide him training and opportunities to progress to more challenging tasks. Recognize his abilities and show your confidence in him. Most people generally try to fulfill positive attitudes about them by acting in a responsive, constructive manner. Your positive attitudes about them often bring positive responses from them.

ENRICH A MAN'S JOB

Increase His Responsibility For The Job

Give him the authority he needs to carry out his job and allow him some initiative in his work.

Assign An Entire Unit Of Work, When Feasible

By doing a job in its entirety, he sees the job's meaning and purpose and he has the personal satisfaction and accomplishment of completing the job.

Allow Him Some Freedom To Carry Out His Work

As a man gains experience, he requires less close supervision and can be given more freedom to do his job. Men are more involved in their work when they invest their own thoughts and abilities. Expect some mistakes but deal with them constructively as barometers for clarification, corrections, and adjustments, which in turn, lead to his learning and progress.

Commend Him When He Earns It

By your recognition for a job "well-done", you reaffirm his self-image as a person of ability and worth. This supports his desire to be somebody—to be a person of value. Although an individual is said to work first for tangible benefits—in the sense that he must have these to live—one of his chief goals in actual practice is to feel that he is important and worth something to somebody else. One important source of this feeling is the belief that his work is important to others. The leader can create this belief by praising his men for work well done.

The contrast is equally strong. If the leader never compliments a subordinate for good work it is easy for the subordinate to believe either that he never does good work or that his leader is not really interested in good work. Either of these beliefs will cripple a man's motivation.

The effects of accurate and realistically given praise can be profound. The leader by praising a man tells him that he is a valued member of his group. In addition, almost all naval personnel have learned to value group support and the esteem of their co-workers. When small naval units are rewarded as groups for their good work, and future rewards also are made contingent on good performance, most of the men in the unit will want to do a good job to show the other members they are carrying their share of the workload.

Consider And Value A Man's Ideas and Suggestions

A man whose ideas and suggestions are honestly considered feels that he is contributing to getting the job done and that he has a personal investment in helping his group accomplish its goal. A man whose own ideas help others reach a decision is more likely to give that decision his willing support and acceptance. It all points to one thing: People more willingly carry out decisions in which they have taken an active part. Pride of authorship can be a potent force, for people tend to support what they help create.

A group discussion where alternative proposals are considered and discussed can be helpful. People can express their ideas and at the same time get reasons from others besides the leader as to why their ideas may or may not be good. In most cases, many of the group's ideas can be incorporated in the final solution, and, at the same time, some of the problems you may have overlooked can be solved. Your people may be aware of problems you didn't consider. There are, indeed, very few people who would not positively support a decision which they, in part, developed.

Provide Opportunities For A Man To Progress To More Complex And Difficult Tasks As He Gains Experience

Establish a training program for your people to learn new skills and to gradually assume more challenging jobs. No one likes to be in a dead-end job. People usually like to develop their abilities and to make progress. Teach your men specific, specialized tasks that increase their skills. Man's self-confidence increases with his proficiency.

Show The Work's Purpose

Tell him the purpose of his work and how it helps meet the overall goal of the ship or

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activity. Even menial jobs become more significant when a man knows they contribute to a higher goal.

INCENTIVES TO PERFORMANCE

USE NEGATIVE INCENTIVES WITH CARE

"How do I build a man's motivation when the job itself is not satisfying?" is a question that you may now be puzzling over. Of course, the Navy can legally force men to carry out its directives. But authority used solely to direct men's activities does not effectively motivate men. It is an inefficient way to solicit good performance and should be saved as a last resort for those who cannot otherwise be induced to do good work. The reason is simple. When threats of punishment for poor performance are the leader's primary means for securing good performance, his men learn rather quickly that the objective is not really to do good work but to avoid getting caught doing poor work. Also, they learn quickly those things for which they are likely to get caught. The end result is a unit that requires extremely close supervision for effective performance.

Negative incentives such as fear, threats, and coercion for good performance must be used with care. The objective is never to create excessively strong fear. Fear works to the detriment of the man's ability to do good work by causing him to worry too much about the possible consequences of failure. The more he worries, the less time he has to think about what he is doing, and the more likely he is to fail. If negative incentives are used, as is sometimes necessary, the objective should be to use the smallest force that will ensure the desired outcome.

REWARDS ARE MORE EFFECTIVE THAN FEAR

Some people may appear unwilling, whereas in actuality they aren't. Some military leaders, thinking their people are unwilling, tend to rely heavily on punitive methods for motivating them.

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Actually military leaders have many effective positive incentives at their disposal. There is evidence that newcomers to the Navy are initially well motivated and will continue to be so if they see that good performance is a means for satisfying their own needs.

People usually work better to achieve desired personal goals than they do to avoid punishment. If they work only to avoid punishment for poor work, their performance tends to be minimal or undependable. Consequently, the leader is then forced to exercise close supervisory control over them if he expects their performance to be good. In contrast, if good performance is obtained primarily through the use of positive incentives, such as recognition and rewards for good performance, the leader will build a dependable unit that will work in his absence as well as in his presence. It is highly desirable to use positive incentives to induce good performance whenever it is possible to do so.

DANGERS OF MANIPULATION

Of all the functions of the leader, that of generating good performance is perhaps the most important. People can be induced to do good work in a number of different ways, some proper and some improper.

The manipulative approach is improper. The manipulative leader uses his understanding of human behavior to achieve an end without any real regard for the rights of others. He goes through the motions of giving recognition and enriching the job but his actions lack conviction; one essential ingredient is missing—sincerity. People, quickly sensing that he has no real interest in them as individuals, tend to distrust and question his actions. The best motivation is a man's intrinsic satisfaction from his job that is backed by your sincere, positive regard and interest in the man's development and well-being. When such motivation is an active, driving force, your task is greatly simplified.

WHAT IT TAKES TO BE MOTIVATED

Motivating a man to do good work is dependent on four factors:

- His feeling that he can succeed if he tries
- His belief that his leader will recognize his good work either tangibly or intangibly
- The value he places on that recognition
- His estimate of the probability that he will be punished if he does not try

A man has little motivation to try something he fears he cannot do. There is evidence that a feeling of inadequacy, an expectation of not being able to cope with the situation, is an important cause of inadequate performance. Deterioration of a person's motivation to try results from his near-certain expectation of failure.

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The relation between expectation of success and motivation to try, is not a simple one. Motivation to try usually does not decrease at a constant rate as expectation of success decreases. There is a breaking point; that is, as a man feels less and less confident that he can succeed, it is likely that his motivation to try will drop slowly until he feels there isn't much chance of succeeding and he quits trying altogether.

Generally he still might succeed if he were convinced he had a chance for success. The leader can help at this point by building the man's confidence in himself by being supportive and encouraging, and particularly by breaking the task down into segments that the man can do. The man should understand that he will not be punished for failing if he has done his best. This reassurance is important, especially in combat training or on very difficult tasks, because men may be encouraged to keep trying and ultimately may succeed, whereas without encouragement they may simply quit.

Once a man is convinced that his chances of success are good enough to warrant the effort required to try, his expectation that success will be rewarded becomes an important consideration. A worker usually is not where he is just for the fun of it. There are definite personal needs that he expects to satisfy through performance of his work. If he is not sufficiently convinced that good performance is the best way to get these needs satisfied, then he usually will have little or no interest in doing his work well. His motivation will be low.

The consistency and appropriateness of the leader's reactions to his men's performance is important to his men's morale and motivation. Good performance should always be recognized in some manner, and poor performance should never be allowed to go uncorrected. The consistency with which a leader reacts to performance lets his followers know what to expect.

Consistency requires awareness of the things going on around oneself so that neither exceptionally good nor exceptionally poor performance ever goes unnoticed. A leader's appraisal of a man's performance requires the ability to judge accurately both the actual performance and the man's capabilities. If a man is judged to have done his best, the leader's reaction should never be negative, no matter how poor the performance. Leaders often overlook this precept, probably because it is easier to measure the end result that the extent of the effort.

A leader's appropriate reactions to performance introduces us to another general factor affecting motivation to work—the value a man places on the recognition he will receive for successful completion of assigned tasks. A subordinate logically asks what the leader can provide him of value. The answer is complicated as many routine tasks are done during a day or a week, none of which merits a tangible reward for successful completion, but all of which must nevertheless be done well. Further, providing tangible rewards for all good performances, especially routine tasks, would ultimately cheapen their value in encouraging good performance on more critical tasks. Also, there would not be enough tangible rewards available for the leader to use in this manner. Fortunately, intangible rewards are available, such as praise for a job well done, respect, and consideration of a man's ideas.

In general, performance is the product of two overall factors, ability and motivation. If ability is high but motivation is low, performance will also be low. Performance will also be low if ability is low even though motivation is high. You can use your judgment to determine if a man's poor performance is due to his low ability or his low motivation. If failure is basically the result of low ability, you should identify and provide the extra training the man needs. If the failure is attributed to low motivation, the solution is to take whatever actions seem necessary to increase the motivational levels of your people. Ability failures should never be punished. On the other hand, training should never substitute for corrective action when failure results from a man's not trying hard enough.

It is your responsibility to apply sanctions, that is, rewards and punishments. Negative sanctions are necessary at times, but the use of punishment or threat of force is relatively ineffective in achieving Navy goals because our success depends on the individual initiative of highly trained men pooling their technical specialities. This initiative depends primarily on the use of positive sanctions and intrinsic rewards.

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WHY A LEADER VALUES A MOTIVATED WORKER

Motivated people make your job easier. Motivated people are productive people for they are self-starting. Motivated people carry out their duties with dispatch and they learn new assignments and tasks readily. They are co-operative. These are only some of the reasons why motivated workers are assets to any organization. They not only make your job simpler and easier but you can usually count on them to give a one hundred per cent effort to meeting the group's goal.

You, as an effective leader, can provide the stimuli and set up the favorable conditions that are conducive to increasing your men's desires to do a good job.

CHAPTER 5

PERCEPTION

Why do our concepts of what is real often differ from those of another person? Why do we see things differently?

Our self concepts may differ from those who know us. A co-worker may see us as ambitious and aggressive while we see ourselves as industrious and conscientious.

We may differ in our opinions of other people. You may see your boss as hard working and fair but I may see him as domineering and unfair.

We often differ about events in the outer world. Witnesses to an accident usually have different versions of what happened. And each is convinced that his version is correct.

Consider the picture in figure 5-1. What age woman do you think she is? Is she attractive or ugly? Try an experiment and show the picture to some of your friends. Do they see the same picture? Do some think she is in her late teens or early twenties? Do others think she is about sixty or older? If this is so, how do you account for the disagreements? Now look at figure 5-2. What do you see? Do all agree?

Figures 5-1 and 5-2 are intentionally ambiguous. You can see figure 5-1 as an old hag with a long nose or as a young girl looking away so that you see only an eyelash and a part of her nose. You can see figure 5-2 as a set of profiles or as a goblet.

These figures illustrate a common phenomenon, i.e., that people see things differently, that everyone wears his own rose-colored glasses.

You make the world not as it necessarily is but as you are. You make your own reality; you cannot assume that your facts speak for themselves. Your reality may not correspond to my reality.

Leadership depends in part on how you perceive yourself, how you perceive your subordinates, and how they perceive you.

This chapter discusses the mental processes you use in making your reality. It discusses the factors that influence your perspectives and what you can do to sharpen your powers of observation.

THE NATURE OF PERCEPTION OR THE WAY WE SEE THINGS

Your perception is your consciousness of the things that exist or that are taking place around you. It is your ideas and feelings about yourself and other people. Your ideas and beliefs may or may not correspond to reality but they nevertheless influence your behavior.

MAKING SENSE OUT OF THE OUTER WORLD

You awaken one night to loud shouts and sirens plus the strong smell of smoke. You immediately think there is a fire nearby. This is an example of how we continuously assign meaning to happenings in the external environment. This search for meaning is the dominant feature of perception.

Through your ability to perceive you make sense of the outer world. Your perceptions serve as guideposts that direct your behavior. You evaluate a person or situation, consider the factors that appear advantageous, and recognize the barriers that may block your goals. You then elect a course of action.

A person's perceptions play a major role in determining his behavior. To influence a subordinate's behavior, you can start by trying to comprehend his perceptions and the factors that helped him form them. You will thereby better understand his motives and needs.

A person's raw materials for his social perceptions are his personal factors and the external environment. These two determinants are highly interdependent but for analysis, we shall look first at the personal factors.

Figure 5-1. 191.8

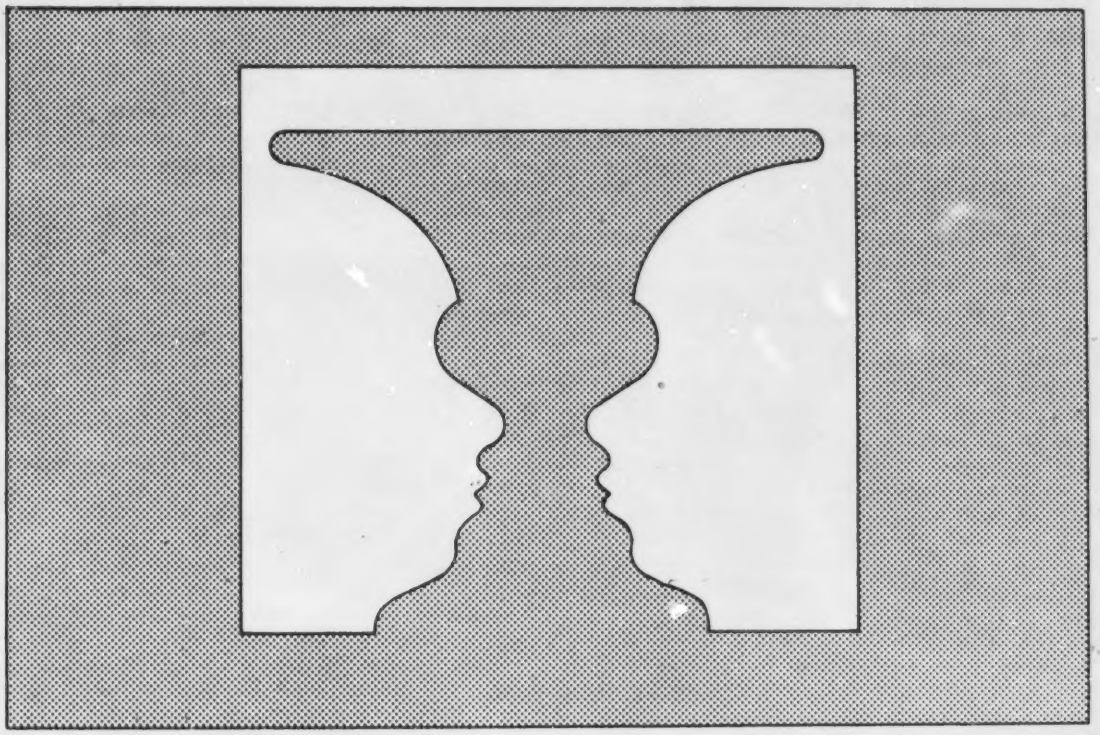

Figure 5-2. 191.9

Personal Factors Affect Perception

MOTIVES. — Suppose you are on your way to a restaurant for lunch. Being hungry, you may pay little or no notice to the clothing stores along your way. But after a good meal, you may carefully scrutinize the clothes displayed in those same stores, providing you are looking for some new clothes.

We are selectively aware of the outer world according to our tensions and motives. We tend to be aware of objects that relate to our needs — both those that are potentially satisfying and those that are potentially unsatisfying.

EMOTIONS. — You have a quarrel with a friend. Your emotions of anger, anxiety, or hostility temporarily color your friendly feelings toward him. Let us take another case. You have car trouble; a policeman stops and assists you. He puts out flares, tries to locate the trouble, and then radios for a wrecker. As you are grateful for his help, you tend to perceive policemen favorably. The next day, a policeman stops you and gives you a ticket for speeding. In this case, your perspective of policemen probably changes to one less favorable.

PAST EXPERIENCES. — Suppose you had a high school biology teacher who was interesting and knowledgeable. You enjoyed his lectures. He stimulated your thinking. Under his guidance, you performed interesting experiments. Now, a few years later, your reaction to taking another biology course is probably positive and, perhaps, enthusiastic.

Suppose that your experience was just the opposite. You found the lectures boring and the laboratory experiments uninteresting. Your reaction is likely to be negative when someone suggests that you take another biology course.

Your past experiences influence your perceptions about people and situations. Shakespeare said, "What is past is prologue".

STATE OF THE INNER SELF. — Your mental states of security or insecurity, anxiety or confidence, cooperation or resentment, color your perspectives.

A person who is insecure and anxious sees many things as threatening. He may take offense at a person's casual remark and regard it as a personal snub whereas a more secure person would disregard it completely. He may interpret a person's indifference as dislike or rejection. In contrast, a person who is secure within himself may regard a person's hostile behavior as mere indifference.

FRAME OF REFERENCE. — All of your perceptions involve a frame of reference. You evaluate people, objects, and situations in relation to a larger setting or context. Your frame of reference consists of reference points to which you refer in assigning meaning.

Suppose you are visiting a city for the first time and someone asks you for directions to a particular street. The street name likely means nothing to you as you are unable to relate it to any reference point. But, you can probably help him if you have a city map. The street location on the map in relation to your present location shown on the map gives you a frame of reference.

We often select reference points that keep us from appearing less admirable, less worthy, or less successful than we want to be. For example, the athlete who doesn't make the football team tends to compare himself with the other athletes who didn't make the team either. Or a student who flunks a test compares his score with the others who also flunked.

You acquire your frames of reference from your experiences. You first build concepts of various objects such as dogs, horses, and people. You use these concepts to interpret your experiences. They serve as blueprints for your actions. Then, you learn to classify differences within the general concept. For example, you learn that people vary according to sex, age, position, and personality.

Consider how a child forms his concept of a dog. First, he learns that the family collie is a dog. This dog has four legs, long fur, a long snout, short upright ears, and a long bushy tail. It barks and is friendly. It is also quite large (larger than he is, but smaller than his father).

Secure in his notion of what a dog is, the child then confronts a bulldog and finds that he must adjust his concept. Dogs can be of different sizes. They may have short, ugly snouts. But they still bark, are friendly, and have upright ears.

Then one day the child learns that there is such a dog as a Mexican hairless. An almost radical change occurs in his concept of what a dog is but the resulting picture is a more valid view of the whole class.

Eventually the child gets a wide range of experiences and his concept of dogs is complete. He reaches the point where he sees new animals and he correctly classifies them as dogs or non-dogs.

Often concept formation depends more on the width and amount of experience than on the depth of it. Extensive experience with a wide variety of encounters builds up concepts that are valid.

After you learn general concepts and can recognize the variations therein, you have numerous frames of reference. You then apply scales of judgment that you learned through your experiences to that class of objects.

Scales and Standards. — To give your experience meaning, you must develop scales and standards. Let's say, you learn from your parents that "A" grades in school are excellent marks, that "B" are good marks, and that "C"s are fair marks. You form a scale of excellent, good, and fair marks.

Suppose the parents of your friend next door do not have such high academic standards. They tell their daughter that a passing grade of "C" is good and that a "B" grade is excellent. Her standards of school grades are likely to be different from yours.

You establish standards for the important aspects of your life such as status of positions, rates of pay, and acceptable behavior. You form scales and judgments from your unique experiences.

You may revise your standards as you undergo new experiences and acquire additional evidence. For example, people once considered a car's 30 m.p.h. speed to be fast. Today's standards are much higher. Also, each time a track star sets a new world record, the former records no longer seem as impressive to us.

Despite new evidence or changed circumstances, some people may still adhere to their judgments. When this happens, their perception no longer fits the new reality.

Judgments. — People tend to play down or to disregard behaviors that do not support their

judgments. Our evaluations tend to be selective as we emphasize those features that agree with our judgments and we often screen out those features with which we disagree. People who believe that professors are absent-minded, that intellectuals are dull, or that the young are irresponsible are apt to perceive these characteristics in their behavior. Conversely, they are apt to overlook or deem insignificant those characteristics that do not support their beliefs.

In our judgments, we are not necessarily aware of the scales and standards we have adopted. If we evaluate a person's behavior as disloyal, we often cannot indicate the point where loyalty changes to disloyalty. Often, we are unable to rationally describe the standards that we use to make our judgments.

Our judgments often hinge on the particular frame of reference we select. For example, a teen-ager may see smoking as physically harmful and to be avoided or he may see smoking as a means of winning acceptance from his friends who all smoke. The first frame of reference is that smoking is harmful. The second is that smoking with his friends will help gain their acceptance.

People often disagree because they apply different frames of reference to a particular object or situation. When they agree on the facts, they usually have the same reference points.

External Factors Affect Our Perception

We cannot perceive everything in our external environment; rather, we select some objects for our attention while we ignore others. There are a number of conditions in the physical environment that help direct our attention to a particular object.

- Intensity — You likely notice objects of high intensity. For example, an advertisement with bright colors is likely to attract your attention.

- Movement — You are apt to notice a moving object. An advertisement with a moving figure is likely to be noticed.

- Repetition — You also notice something that is repeated. You may have to call out a friend's name several times before you gain his attention. But, you may ignore something that is repeated too often.

- Contrast — You are more likely to notice an object that contrasts with its surroundings than one that blends with its surroundings. For example, you are apt to notice a black sheep in a flock of white ones.

Our Culture Influences Our Perceptions

The social institutions, language, attitudes, values, and ideals of the culture in which we live greatly influence our thinking as we grow up and also, the ways in which we are encouraged to behave. We learn most of our social values, behaviors, and work attitudes from our particular social and cultural environments. To illustrate, there are incidents in American history where settlers' children were kidnapped and reared by an Indian tribe. These children completely adopted the attitudes and values of the Indian tribe's culture.

Within a culture, there are smaller components called subcultures. These subcultures also have their own customs and values. A boy of Norwegian descent living on a farm in Minnesota and a boy of Irish descent living in New York city live in the same culture, the Western culture, but their subcultures are decidedly different. Thus, some of their ideas and attitudes about life and people may differ.

We learn much about people and life from a basic cultural unit, our family. From our parents we learn what is right and wrong, ways to behave, and many of our values.

People adopt certain views of life according to their unique experiences in the overall culture, community, institutions, and the family.

THE WAY WE LIKE TO SEE THINGS

We mentally reconstruct the world in terms of our needs. We attach greater significance to a compliment from a superior than one from a co-worker. We likewise worry more about criticism from our superior than from a co-worker. We perceive both according to the importance each holds relevant to our needs for security and approval.

We tend to see what we want to see and to believe what we want to believe. We like to emphasize the things we find pleasant and to screen out the things we find disturbing or unpleasant.

Screening Out Undesirable Or Unpleasant Things

Think back to a past experience of yours. You usually tend to de-emphasize the unpleasant. People tend to put out of mind or postpone unpleasant chores such as doing a tedious, repetitious job or completing a boring report. We prefer to ignore or evade those things that we find disturbing. Sometimes this works to our advantage. For example, most of us can screen out mildly disturbing noises while we work.

Emphasizing The Desirable And Pleasant Things

Conversely we like to recall the things we found pleasant and satisfying. You perhaps remember the happy times of a past friendship more than the disagreements or agruments. You may likewise overlook your appointment with the dentist but you are less apt to forget a date to go fishing with a friend.

Emphasizing the positive has its advantages. Most of us, in time of adversity, will try to make the best of the situation.

Making The Outer World Coincide With Our Needs and Desires

We are at the World Series rooting for our team. Each time our team starts winning, an umpire wipes it out by a close decision. We know umpires sometimes make mistakes but all their close calls favor the other team! Our team gets no breaks from the umpires. Actually, they are objectively calling the plays as they see them. We, however, see the situation as we want to see it. One of our pitchers throws a called "ball" but we see it a strike. The umpire calls an opposing player safe at home-plate but we easily see him "out."

Sometimes circumstances compel us to accept an unpleasant conclusion. Perhaps the other team clearly outplayed ours. We then see what we would like to avoid. But when the facts are ambiguous and permit different interpretations, we tend to shape our perceptions to support our needs and desires.

EFFECTS OF VARIANCES IN PERCEPTION

Suppose you ask your superior for guidance on a work project but he brusquely responds "Can't talk to you now!" as he walks away, frowning. What is your immediate reaction? Do you become angry at him? Do you feel a sense of rejection and lowered esteem? Do you ask yourself, "If he thought well of me, would he treat me this way?" or "Is he mad at me?"

When you relate the situation to your personal feelings, you modify your behavior and attitudes toward him. You may withdraw — "I'll never ask HIM for any help!" You may react aggressively — "He's stupid and rude!" You may feel fearful and insecure — "Is he going to transfer me?" You may perceive a loss of his approval and become depressed, unable to give your full attention to your job. The resultant behavior toward your superior stem from your subjective perception.

These reactions tend to create similar reactions and behavior from your superior. He revises his perceptions according to your changed attitudes and behavior. For example, he may determine your feelings of depression to be laziness or rejection of him as a boss. If unchecked, these subjective reactions create a destructive cycle for the people involved. Figure 5-3 shows the interpersonal perceptual cycle.

Later, you may discover reasons for his behavior that are totally unrelated to you. Your perception shifts from your inner feelings and emotions to external factors that account for his behavior. Perhaps he was preoccupied with a high priority problem or had other pressing matters on his mind. Then, you see his behavior more objectively. It is usually a good idea to look beyond your subjective assessment to a rational, objective interpretation. Our inner feelings of personal unworthiness, insecurity, or depression, often distort reality and may impair our relationships with others. In contrast, our perceptions of others' recognition, approval, or support help create positive perceptual cycles that improve human relationships.

OUR PERCEPTIONS SOMETIMES DISTORT REALITY

We have seen that we restructure reality in ways that suit our motives and desires. We want to believe something even though the facts may not support our beliefs.

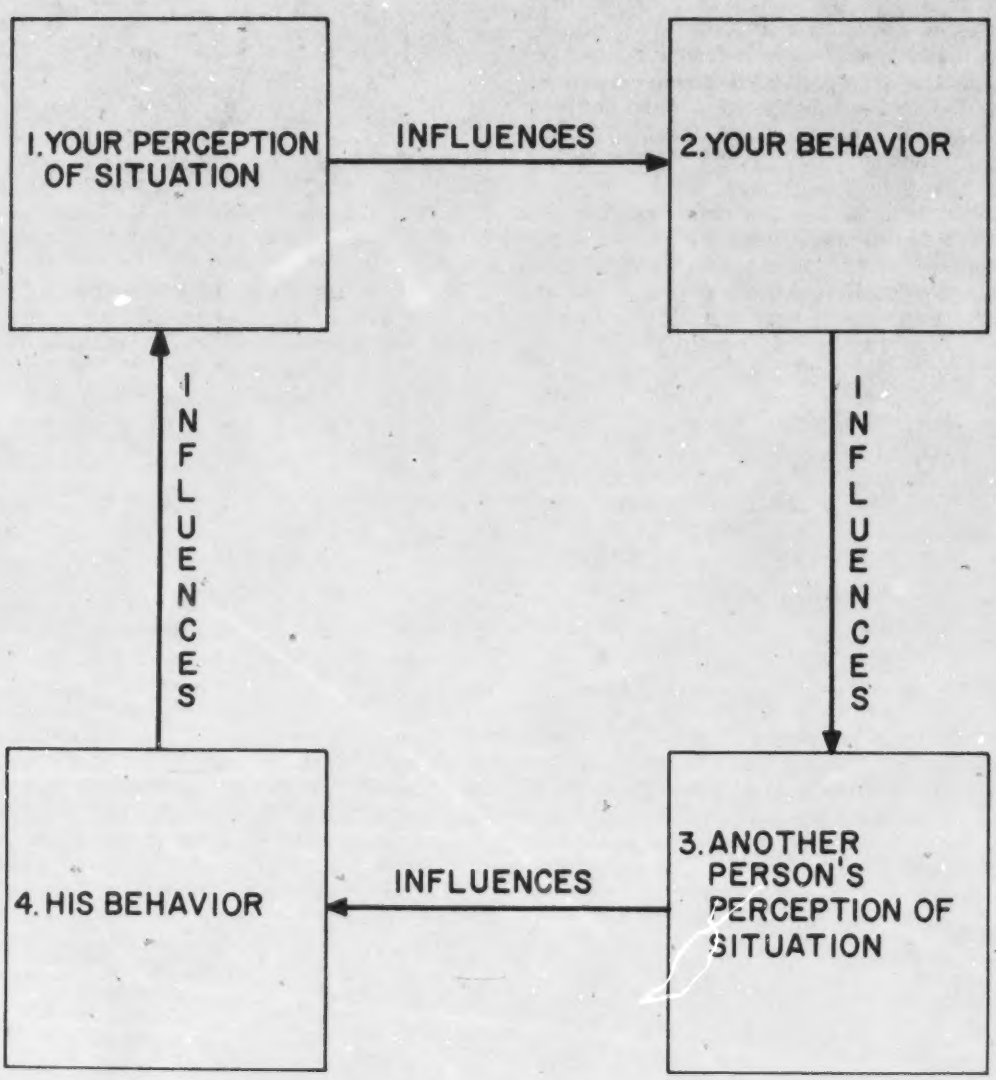

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Figure 5-3.

We often select those aspects of a situation that are in line with our attitudes and beliefs. On the other hand, we tend to dismiss those aspects with which we disagree. Perceptual distortion occurs when our attitudes and beliefs are automatically loaded in one direction.

This selective distortion of reality is unintentional. It occurs subconsciously and serves to defend the self from lowered esteem in our own eyes. It enhances our good image of ourselves.

Let us look at a hypothetical example of how mental self defense works. A shipmate of yours is assigned the billet you thought you were going to get. How easy for you to say to yourself, "I really don't care but I'd sure hate to pull strings the way he did to get it!"

Let us consider next an example of self enhancement. Suppose you and your partner win a game of tennis. You say to yourself, "Gee, I'm really good! Why, I practically won that match all by myself!" Perhaps you were that good; on the other hand, you may think that way even if you only did your share to win the game. We often change reality to enhance the self.

Illusions

Our physical senses deceive us. We see a fishing pole as bent if it sticks into the water at a certain angle. We know a magician's tricks are illusions, even though our eyes tell us differently. The movement we see in motion pictures is an illusion for picture stills merely follow one another rapidly. Which line in figure 5-4 seems longer? Actually, the two lines are equal in length. Are the two center squares in figure 5-5 the same size? No, they are not!

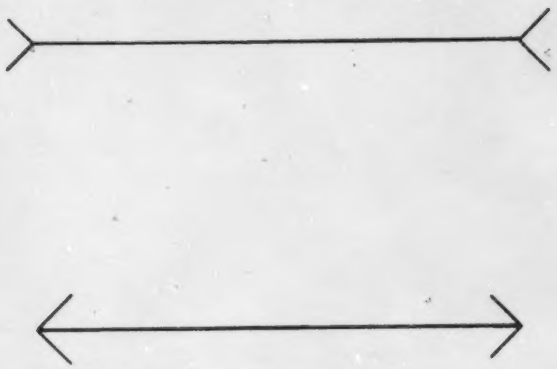

Figure 5-4. 191.11

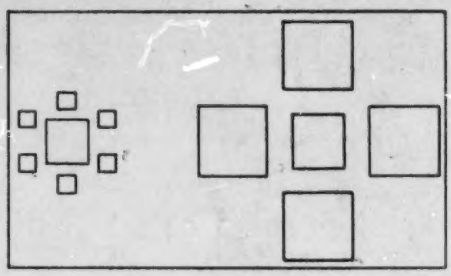

Figure 5-5. 191.12

We liberally interpret what we think exists, not only in the physical environment but in the social environment as well. We may misread factors in a social environment and form misleading impressions of people. For example, in a group of unusually competent persons, a person of average abilities may seem poor or unsatisfactory.

Expectations

Often we build hopes and expectations to such an extent that we misinterpret reality. Suppose you expect to be transferred and are eagerly awaiting orders. One day you hear rumors that a new Chief in your rate will report in a few months. You decide your transfer is imminent and you start making plans. Later, you discover that the new Chief will report aboard on TAD for four weeks.

Our expectations stem from our needs and may be out of phase with reality. A lovesick youth expects his girlfriend to marry him even though she shows him only mild interest. A First Class who passes his E-7 examination rushes out to buy new uniforms and tells his friends that his advancement is guaranteed.

Stereotypes

We all tend to place people into broad categories and to assign them common traits. We stereotype people by putting them collectively into neat compartments. We are probably familiar with common stereotypes; the absent-minded professor; the unconventional artist; the romantic, easy-going Latin; the hot-tempered redhead. We automatically endow a person belonging to a general group with the traits of the stereotype.

Whenever we react to an individual in terms of our stereotyped picture of him, we are probably reacting to something that isn't there.

The real Admiral is a human being with a certain number of stripes. The stereotyped Admiral is an imaginary picture in people's minds. The real college professor is a human being who teaches classes in a university. The stereotyped college professor is a man with a beard who is likely to be absent minded enough to throw his pipe out the window and smoke his match.

Whenever we react to an individual on the basis of our stereotyped pictures, we are reacting to our own mental images and not to reality. Admirals, redheads, college professors, are likely to resent this.

If the traits of a person differ from our mental picture, we tend to call him an exception. On the other hand, several persons who fit our stereotype reinforce our thinking.

Stereotypes hamper accurate perceptions. You should base your perceptions of a person on his particular merits, characteristics, and abilities.

Your perceptions are more tuned to reality if you arrive at judgments relatively uncolored by stereotyped thinking.

Erroneous Perspectives

You see things in comparison with other objects, either directly or indirectly. A six-foot three basketball player appears taller in a group of medium height men than he does in a group of basketball players who average six-foot three.

In the work situation, you more accurately assess a subordinate's aptitudes and abilities if you compare him with others of similar experience and training. Consider the evidence, apply common standards, and analyze your people objectively.

"Halo" Effect

We all tend to let one strong impression of a person's characteristics color our judgments of unrelated characteristics. Our personal liking of a person may influence us to rate him as intelligent, hard-working, and efficient. Carried to the extreme, he may be our "fair-haired boy"; he can do no wrong. Or suppose a person's high, squeaky voice irritates us. Through the "halo" effect, we may rate him low in ability, efficiency, and cooperation. The "halo" effect biases our attitudes either favorably or unfavorably. How to avoid the "halo" effect is discussed later.

"Filling-in" Missing Facts

You catch a glimpse of a friend walking down the street. You hurry to greet her, tap her on the shoulder, and when she turns around, much to your embarrassment she's a complete stranger! Or you judge that a person walking ahead is a twenty-year old from her hair, attire, and general appearance. How surprised you are when she turns around and she is forty plus! We often base our perceptions on reduced cues; we "fill-in" missing facts that may or may not be correct.

IMPROVING YOUR PERCEPTIONS

When you more accurately perceive another person's thoughts and feelings, you increase your understanding of that person.

Improving your perceptions is an ongoing process. It requires your patience, perseverence, and earnest efforts. It is a mental process that challenges your willingness and capacity to understand yourself and others from a broad perspective.

EMPATHY

Empathy is the ability to project yourself mentally into the world of another human being. You interpret the stimuli of that person's world and see that world from his point of view while holding in abeyance your own viewpoint.

To have empathy with another person, you must ask yourself:

- What is his perspective?
- What are his feelings and emotions?
- What makes him feel that way?
- What are his needs and desires?

When you have empathy with your people, you show a genuine concern for their self-interests. You demonstrate a respect for their holding viewpoints different from your own. It shows your basic respect for another person's worth and dignity.

You can deal with your people more effectively when you develop your capacity for empathy. This involves listening to them, listening for the clues that give you an insight into their inner worlds. You are then better equipped to channel their energies toward the common objective.

RECOGNIZE EVIDENCE OR FACTS

What is a fact? The question sounds simple but its answer is complex.

A fact is an intricate thing. It takes a clear-headed person to tell the difference between a fact and other things that look like facts. It is a good idea to think carefully about what a fact is and how you can tell one from things that often pass for facts.

- Facts are based on observation. Before facts can be established, somebody looks, feels, hears, smells, or touches.

- Observation is a process in the nervous system. What you see when you look at a ship is in your brain. What goes on in the visual part of your brain may be influenced by

The ship
The conditions of observation
The condition of your eyes
The condition of your nerves
The condition of the brain

You may naturally assume that what you see is the actual ship—that the color of the ship is the only thing that determines what goes on in your head. Let's look at each of the above items to see the many ways you coul get fooled.

Conditions of observation—The ship in shadow looks differently than it does in bright sunlight. A ship at two miles may seem to have a different color than it does up close. (Camouflage tries to capitalize on conditions of observation so that the enemy is fooled about his facts.)

Conditions of the eye—If the eye isn't functioning properly, almost anything can happen to observation. All ships may look gray. Or there may be no ship there at all as far as you are concerned.

Conditions of the optic nerve—Unless the optic nerve is operating correctly you will probably see no ship.

Conditions of the brain—Goings-on in the brain can do strange things to observation. The brain causes some people to see strange things or to hear voices from the dead or to perceive themselves as misunderstood Napoleons. In a less strange way, our brains can make us see our ships as the most beautiful in the Navy, our wives as the prettiest in the world, ourselves as very unusual and gifted people.

How, then, do we know if what we see is really there? The only way to be absolutely sure what color the ship is, is for a number of people to agree. If, the conditions of observation are satisfactory and a number of people agree the ship is gray, you can be sure the ship is gray.

A fact is based on observation and agreement among observers. Facts should be based on several observations. You should be suspicious of single observations and the quick conclusions some people make. Similarly, a single observer may make several faulty observations. However, under emergency conditions, a single observation by one person may have to serve.

Facts And Opinions

Opinions, like facts, are often based on observation. But opinions are personal affairs. Facts are impersonal, agreed-upon things. When you alone look at the ship, you come up with an opinion that it is gray. It doesn't become a fact until it is verified by others. Single observations lead only to opinions.

Most opinions are charged with emotion. They involve not only observation but also evaluation. They are stated in such terms as "good," "bad", "useless," "ugly." "He is a good petty officer" or "He's the best CO" or "He has an ugly disposition." Such emotional opinions are easy to recognize. But they are sometimes accepted as facts.

"Texas is a good state" the Texan says, firmly convinced that he is stating a basic fact about Texas. "Texas is not a good state," the Californian answers. Then follows an unpleasant argument about the "facts." See figure 5-6.

Figure 5-6. 191.13

Suppose the Texan had said, "I like Texas," or "Of course, this is a matter between me, a unique individual, and Texas, a unique state, but somehow I find myself liking the place." That is what his original statement means, and about all it means. If he said it that way, not even a Californian would feel moved to put him straight about the "facts" regarding Texas, California, or states in general.

Statements such as "He's an excellent division officer" or "This picture is beautiful" or "This steak is overcooked" are not facts about the division officer, the picture, or the steak but are the speaker's reaction to them. When you hear someone use "is" in this way, mentally preface his remarks with "it seems to him that . . . "

If these and similar statements were given a factual basis, they would be expressed something like this:

"Ninety percent of his shipmates judged him to be an excellent division officer."
"All of us at the table agreed the steak was overcooked."

Facts And Abstractions

Abstractions disguised as facts confuse the thinking process. We continually talk about life and about people—particularly people—in abstract terms.

An abstraction is an attribute or characteristic that cannot be seen. Nobody ever saw honesty, love, intelligence, or human nature. These abstract terms are far removed from the factual. Each abstract term is used to summarize and represent a lot of complicated facts. Actually, we can't get along without abstractions. But if we want to arrive at the facts, we must think about things that can be seen, heard, or felt.

In talking factually about people, we must talk in terms of what people do. You can generally get agreement among observers as to what a person does. But when you get involved with what he is, you can expect confusion. You say CPO Baker is generous. Your friend disagrees. You both may argue for hours about the matter.

One chance you have to settle the argument is to reach agreement on what you each mean by the term generous and to then look at Chief Baker's behavior. You can see it and agree you see it. But when you forget the facts and go in for abstractions only, you are likely to end up with this disagreement.

It is often possible to recognize facts by the sort of language they are dressed in. Judgments run to adjectives and abstractions. Facts come in simple nouns and verbs. Factual and nonfactual language about people presents quite a study in contrasts. Take, for example, the following two passages drawn from actual war-time descriptions of Navy people.

1. LANGUAGE OF OPINION

"He is a man who is characterized by the most versatile incompetence I have ever seen. He is bigoted, he is stupid, and he is lazy. He dressed sloppily and the relation between him and his men is one of mutual disrespect. He is a discredit

to the uniform he wears and I can think of nothing that would improve the Navy so much as the dismissal of this character."

11. LANGUAGE OF FACT

"During the last two years this man has been changed five times from one sort of duty to another. Each of his five immediate superiors in the five billets has requested his transfer 'because of his incompetence.' This man's I.Q. as measured by the Stanford-Binet scale was 113 on one form of test, 118 on the other. Four times in the last seven months this man has been put on report for being out of uniform. He has had his only pair of dress trousers pressed once in the past three months and he has worn them exactly sixteen times, etc., etc."

CULTIVATE OBJECTIVITY

Objectivity is tied directly to the observation process. Observation is a relation between a person and some aspect of the world.

If the observer has a smoothly functioning, and unemotional nervous system, he will make a clear observation—an objective observation. This means, essentially, that if a number of people in the same state were brought in, they would agree with the first observer. One observes objectively when other calm and unemotional people agree with the observation.

An observation is termed subjective, rather than objective, when emotion or bias plays a part.

The human being is prone to subjectivity when he observes and interprets. Remember the saying that a man sees the world not as it is but as he is? Biases, prejudices, hopes, fears, likes, dislikes, and needs undeniably create distorted perceptions. Studies of people furnish evidence to support this notion. For example, an experiment showed that a fifty cent piece looked decidedly larger than its actual size to youngsters to whom fifty cents represented a small fortune. In contrast, the well-heeled youngsters under-estimated the coin's size.

There are many instances of subjective thinking in everyday life. Home cooking is better if you've been exposed to hamburger joints for a long time.

The emotions of the observer, whether of a hidden or an overt variety, are powerful agents in creating peculiar observations. These emotions, desires, peculiar habits of thought, are hard to detect and to allow for. They often sneak into our observing process unnoticed.

Nowhere are observations likely to be so biased, so subjective than in judging people. People are objects to like or dislike or ignore or admire. When the average human being observes another human being, he can rarely stifle the distorting influence of his emotional relation to that person.

Let's consider the way one CPO might characterize another. Suppose we say it is factually established that the Chief Petty Officer being observed is 5'2", spends about half the time on the telephone, spends an average ten hours per week drinking coffee in the CPO Mess, and refuses to take a chance on a football pool. These are facts. They are the facts the CPO's jealous rival observes.

A friend of the CPO comes along and observes that this CPO wears the Distinguished Service Medal, is known to have invented a new device to improve the effectiveness of mine detection, and that 99% of the men in his section express great respect and admiration for him. These, too, are facts.

Which set of facts are observed depends on the observer. The objective observer tries to get all the facts, and his estimate of the CPO is likely to be quite different from that of either the CPO's friend or his jealous rival.

While the effects of bias are most dramatic when people are judging other people, or judging themselves, bias is often involved in judgments of impersonal matters, too. If you want to learn the facts about the performance of a certain destroyer, you would not put full weight on the observations of her commanding officer known to be partial to his ship. The man who plans a training program is not the best one to judge its effectiveness. You could probably not completely trust a man's appraisal of his wife's virtues or her shortcomings. And, if you want objective thinking, you would never pick a baseball fan of the Hometown Aces to umpire one of their games.

Objectivity And The Defense Of The Ego

People have a need to get questions answered. Unfortunately, a person often accepts the first answer that comes along.

Once a person has an answer, good or bad, he tends to stick with it. It becomes his answer,

not the problem's answer, and he takes personally any attack on the answer. His ego is invested in the answer and he defends his ego by finding those facts, and only those facts, that support his answer.

We see this ego-defending bias in arguments. The typical argument begins when one person declares "I believe so-and-so. . . " The second participant then states "I believe the opposite." The stage is thus set for a showdown in which each is committed to a stand. Each seeks those facts and principles that support his stand. When one is defending his point of view, the other is thinking up reasons why his point of view is right. When the first person pauses, the second one steps in to cite the alleged facts he has thought up.

Arguments rarely solve anything. They usually end up with each of the participants more sure than ever about the rightness of his original stand. Once a person takes a stand on a question, he is no longer in a position to observe impartially the facts relevant to the case.

Discussions, on the other hand, often produce positive results. A discussion typically begins when one person says "I wonder. . . " This starts a hunt for evidence. The second person says "I wonder, too, if. . . " Then the two of them pool observations. They may reach some tentative conclusions. Because neither has taken a definite stand, because neither has invested his ego in a set belief, the discussion can result in the discovery of new and relevant facts.

An objective person suspects the objectivity of his beliefs. He checks his observations with others. He mentally steps into the other person's shoes and tries to see things with the other person's eyes. And when he reaches conclusions, they are not everlasting conclusions in which his ego is invested. They are tentative conclusions, to be modified when there are new facts or new circumstances.

Be Wary Of Generalizations

Most of us, if we are not careful, tend to take one quick look at a person and then make overall statements about people in particular or human nature in general. "Aviators are a wild, irresponsible bunch. I know for I lived with one of them for eighteen months." "Men with college educations make the best CPOs. Look at Boatswain's Mate Able."

Generalizations of this kind often confuse and distort facts. Limited observations of a person are not enough to generalize accurately about people and may lead to the stereotyped thinking that we discussed.

CULTIVATE A READINESS FOR CHANGE

A person with a good perception of reality suspects ready-made answers. He seeks evidence, recognizes evidence when he finds it, and strives to insure objectivity in his observing and interpreting. When he uncovers new evidence, he adjusts his thinking and takes action if he deems it necessary. This willingness to do something on the basis of evidence tells a good deal about how well a person is adjusted to life. It means a healthy willingness to cast aside from any status quo which new evidence shows to be out-dated.

Life is a process. Things are continually fermenting, continually interacting, continually altering. Some changes are so small they may have little significance—like the day-to-day changes in a maple leaf, or a change in your appearance between yesterday and today. You may wait a month or a year or maybe even a decade for a change of importance to become apparent. But change happens, and the man who acts as if yesterday were the same as today, or that this year is the same as last year, is likely holding old answers to new and different problems.

We all know people who resist change. We have seen that we tend to need answers and to feel inadequate if we don't have them. When we believe that our answers are final answers, we consciously or unconsciously protest against any change that makes it necessary for us to find new answers.

If we admit that change is permanent, we have to admit that answers are temporary. The answers that were good ten years ago or even last year may not be adequate answers today.

A readiness for change does not mean a violent opposition to all aspects of the status quo. The raving radical who opposes all current ways of doing things and the person who would change nothing at all are equally apt to be unhappy.

The person who recognizes change when it happens is a wise person. If one accepts change when it is inevitable, one has a better chance of being a happier and a more effective person.

ASK QUESTIONS THAT PRODUCE THE FACTS

A scientist, being skeptical and striving for objectivity, asks questions. He has learned the art of asking questions that produce useful answers. You can develop this art by keeping in mind the following points.

Watch Your "Why" Questions

If you really want to know why something happened, don't start by asking "why?" Questions beginning with "why" may be ambiguous. They don't suggest how an answer may be gotten. A scientist is wary of "why" questions. He likely asks "when" or "under what circumstances?"

"Why does the sun rise?" This question is of little value until it is translated into other questions. Leave it "why" and you may end up with the answer "God wills it." This may be the ultimate answer but it doesn't tell much about the workings of the universe.

"When does the sun rise?" "What happens when the sun rises?" "What is the relation between the sun's rising and the moon's rising?" "How much does the time of the sun's rising change from day to day?" "Does the sun really rise?" These questions can be answered and have been. When men learned to ask relevant questions about the behavior or heavenly bodies, useful answers resulted. Celestial navigation is one practical result.

Break Big Questions Into Smaller Ones

"Why do my men get into trouble when they go ashore?" This question may produce such answers as: "They are just a troublesome bunch." Or "I certainly drew a sorry crew." Or "That town breeds trouble."

"They are troublemakers" is not an adequate answer. Nor is "It's a trouble-breeding town." Life is more complicated than that. A complicated, adequate answer likely results when the "why" question is made into other questions. Ask "when and where do they get into trouble?" "Under what circumstances do they get into trouble?" These questions call for facts. When you get the facts, the question of "why" will usually be covered.

The procedure for a problem situation may be as follows:

Situation: The crew is in trouble again.
Problem: Why does the crew get in trouble so often?
Answer: They are troublemakers.
Action: Put them in the brig.

An alternate procedure might be this:

Situation: Members of the crew are in trouble again.
Problem: To get the facts about the crew's alleged misbehavior to preveht recurrence.
Question: When do they get into trouble?
Answer: Various members have been reported for brawling the last four times the ship was in port.
Question: Under what circumstances does this fighting occur?
Answer: Drunkenness has apparently been a factor in only two of the four cases. The fighting has been among Navy men, not between Navy and civilians. In each of the four instances the men have been ashore with the men from our cruiser escort. The fighting is set off when the cruiser men make derogatory remarks about our carrier and imply uncomplimentary things about our skipper.
Question: Who gets in the most trouble?
Answer: The fighting is apparently started by the men from the engine room, a unit of known high morale.
Conclusion: The crew gets in trouble when the ship is ridiculed. This suggests good morale among the crew, a characteristic that might be hurt by severe punishment.
Alternative Actions:

1) Controlling the behavior of the engine-room ringleaders.

2) Controlling the time the men have liberty.

3) Controlling the ridicule.

4) Controlling whatever it is that produces the ridicule.

5) Destroying the morale of men so that they do not feel sufficiently proud of their ship to fight for her.

6) Demonstrating to the men that there is a way to squash ridicule without resorting to fists.

In this situation, asking questions that produce facts makes life complicated. But life is complicated. Questions that allow for this complexity lead to factual answers and more effective action. In contrast, "why" questions are generally answered by an over-simplified "because."

The careful and persistent asking of fact-demanding questions—questions about "who," "when," "how many," and "under what circumstances," is one sure way to get better answers.

Watch Your Abstract Questions

Some questions contain undefined terms. Such questions confuse people.

"What is good management?" A scientist would never be drawn into trying to answer such a query.

He would hang up on that word "good." What does it mean? It simply means that the person using it has some sort of favorable reaction to whatever it is that he is calling good.

"He performs well," you may say. This statement, by itself, conveys little to you for you or I may assign different meanings to the word "good" or "well." Such words are often inadequate tools for communication because the people using them may have different backgrounds, points of view, or standards.

LEARN TO USE CLASSIFICATIONS

The world is confusing. People are continually trying to come to grips with it, to make sense out of it.

The chief device for making sense out of a confused environment is classification. The human being cannot keep track of the enormous variety of events and objects about him if he has to study each one individually, if he has to react to each one with a separate and unique reaction. He groups things together. He puts the sheep in one class and the goats in another, the reds here and the blues there, and has one reaction for sheep, one for goats, one for red, one for blue.

Science does this sort of thing all the time—and advances. The scientist, and his cousin, the clear-headed layman, have learned how to handle classification and to turn it to useful ends. The classification process must be understood before it can be a servant to the problem-solver.

Let's look at black and white. Something is either black or white, we may say. Simple. Also unrealistic. To illustrate, you could arrange a stack of cards beginning at one end with an indisputably black card and going through dozens of steps of light black to light-light black to dark-dark gray to dark gray to gray to light gray to light-light gray and so on to one clearly white. Faced with such an array, how could you ever decide where black leaves off and white begins? Or, if you want finer classification, how do you decide where gray ends and light gray begins?

Classification Is Arbitrary

Classifications begin to look arbitrary. We've got to draw the line somewhere, but wherever we draw it, the division is based on opinion only. There will always be some cards in one category barely different from cards in the next category but someone's opinion puts them in one category or the other. This sort of arbitrariness happens every time we classify. And we classify continually. How do we ever succeed then, in getting a realistic picture of the world?

We have seen that scientists classify. Since science seems to work there can't be much basically wrong with classification. What is wrong is that it is too often done with complete unawareness of how classification can insult reality. So often we see an object, hurriedly assign it to a class and behave toward it as if it were identical with all other members of that class. That's where the trouble begins. All members of the class "recruit" are not alike. All members of the class "CPO" are not alike.

Classification And Purpose

When we classify we put together things that are the same. But what things are the same depends on the classifier and his purposes at the moment. If you were going to describe somebody's clothes in casual conversation, for example, forty discernably different shades of white may all be "white," twenty shades of gray can all be "gray" and twenty shades of black are just plain "black." We do not need any more precise classification for conversational purposes. A white-gray-black system is enough. But if we wanted to pick a grayish paint for ships, a paint that would work best for camouflage, we would not use so broad a

classification. The grays that are the same for casual remarks about clothes become vastly different when our purpose changes, when a shade of gray barely different from another shade of gray may mean the difference between losing or saving a ship.

The meaning of "same" varies widely. To handle classification without courting confusion requires a clear notion of how we are using "same" and "different" at any given time. All aircraft carriers are the same if the Secretary of the Navy is reporting to the President the number of U.S. aircraft carriers afloat. "Same" means here that all aircraft carriers are different from submarines, destroyers, and landing craft. But all aircraft carriers are not the same if the problem is to pick one to form a part of a fast task force. When the purpose changes, the meanings of "same" and "different" change. All naval officers are the same for purposes of distinguishing them from enlisted men. But if the Bureau of Naval Personnel regarded them all as "same" when it assigned them to duty, we might end up with a flight surgeon in command of the Seventh Fleet.

JUDGE PEOPLE ACCURATELY

There are several rules to follow in making accurate judgments of people. These rules apply whether you are judging how well a person is doing a job, how intelligent a person is, or whether a person deserves recognition or a reprimand.

Don't Be A Quack

Some people supposedly can tell you all about yourself by studying the length of your nose or the shape of the head or the lines in the palm. While there is some evidence that keen judges of people can make shrewd guesses about personality from studying facial expression or handwriting or walking gait, the connection between these surface things and personality is overrated.

Many people have pet ways of judging character. Some say "Study the eyes—they really tell you about the person." Others say "I don't like a man who has a weak handshake. He lacks character." Or "I had him transferred—he never could look me in the eye."

These ways of reading character are absurb. There is no scientific evidence for any of them.

Look At Behavior

The only way to accurately judge a person is to look at what that person does. This point counteracts the use of superstitions and old prejudices.

It isn't the color of a person's hair or the set of a person's chin or the height of a person's forehead that tells you what that person is. It's what a person does. The only way to accurately describe a person is to study that person's behavior.

Study A Big Sample Of A Person's Behavior

"He's a dishonest man. He once told me a deliberate lie."

What's wrong with this statement? You hear this kind of statement almost every day. It illustrates another way people's judgments can distort reality.

Does one seemingly dishonest act make a person forever dishonest? Does one act of bravery make a person brave? Does doing one job well make a person competent? If a person fails in his duty once, is that person unreliable? If a CPO loses his temper on one occasion, is he hot-tempered? You would think so, judging from the statements some people make.

You cannot say that a person has a lasting tendency to bravery or dishonesty or hotness of temper unless you see more than one instance of such behavior.

Before pinning a long-lasting label on a person, make sure there is a long-lasting tendency there. You can be sure of a long-lasting tendency only if you observe the person over a period of time.

Be Suspicious Of Your Prejudices

We all have certain preferences and prejudices about people. For some reason unknown even to ourselves, we dislike some people the first time we see them. There are others that we just as automatically like. There are many people who are special to us—our friends, our family, our crews. It is natural, human, that we are biased toward these people.

We see people through colored glasses—either the rosy ones of friendship and favor, the green ones of envy, or maybe the gray ones of dislike. When we look at people, we don't see these people as they are but as we are.

You have a young sailor in your crew whom you like. You don't know exactly why, but you just like him. Your commanding officer asks you how good a man he is. Aren't you likely to give him a few breaks in evaluating him?

You have another man who continually irritates you. He does his work well but he obviously doesn't like you or the Navy and he makes no effort to hide it. Would you be fair-minded enough to give him a rating solely on the quality of his work or will your bias influence your judgment? Unless you are careful, your bias is apt to influence your thinking.

About the only way to avoid bias in your judgments is to check your judgment with an outsider. You get someone who neither likes nor dislikes the man to come in, study the situation, and make a judgment.

It is impossible for a man to be his own umpire. He comes close to objectivity only if he is aware of his biases (likes and dislikes) and he makes a wholehearted attempt to make allowances, accordingly.

When you make judgments about people, mentally put yourself in the shoes of an umpire. Ask yourself, "What would an impartial observer say in this case?" This will help keep your biases out of your judgments.

Watch The Relativity Of Your Judgment

Whenever you judge anything—whether a person, a movie, or a ship, your judgment is always a comparison. When you say that Seaman Jones is a good man, you unconsciously compare him to other men you have known. Relative to these men, Jones is a good man.

All judgment is relative. In comparison to the K-Rations you have on a search and rescue mission, the CPO mess is wonderful. But if you dine in fancy French restaurants for six weeks, the wonderful CPO food seems less tasty. A destroyer looks large if you have just transferred from a minesweeper. But the same destroyer seems cramped to you if you have transferred from an aircraft carrier.

You exercise comparative reasoning in judging people. Suppose you must rate the overall proficiency of an Electrician's Mate, second class. You decide that compared to your proficiency and that of other CPO's you know, this EM is inefficient. So you give him a poor rating. Suppose you evaluate him another way. You decide that compared to Electrician's Mates ten years ago, this EM is above average. There's a third way to make your judgment. How does this EM compare to the second class Electrician now in the Navy? The answer is "excellent." The judgment you make depends on what you are using as a comparison. (Which of the above comparisons would you say is a fair one?).

When you judge anybody on anything, you are making a comparison. You are making a relative judgment. To make a good judgment, you must be aware of what you are using as a comparison. And you should be sure that the standard you are using is a fair one.

When you talk about the qualities of a person, it is a good idea to tell your listener what standards you are using. Instead of saying he is a "good man," it is better to say "compared to other men aboard ship, I think he is a good man," or "compared to other men of his limited experience, he does a good job." If you tell me merely "he's a good man," I, the listener, don't know much about the man. All I know is that you, using some standard of judgment unknown to me, think he is good. That is of little help to me if I need to know whether to use the man on a special job.

Judge One Trait At A Time

To counter the previously discussed "halo effect" which is the tendency to let an overall favorable impression, or an overall unfavorable impression bias our judgments, it a good idea to judge a person one trait at a time. No person is likely to be very high or very low on all traits. A good description of a person can be made if you take one trait such as "energy" and compare that person on that trait with other people in your unit. That's the thing that makes him an outstanding man. But on intelligence, how does he rate? When judging intelligence, bear in mind that intelligent behavior and energetic behavior are not the same thing. Now how does he compare in practical intelligence with other men on the ship? And so on for other traits in which you are interested. Take them one at a time. Remember that fair haired boys are not necessarily completely fair. And remember that everyone has some good traits. The good judge of people doesn't put horns or halos on anybody.

Watch Out For Abstract Words

We have said that the good judge of people observes behavior, and a good sample of it,

before he makes a judgment. But almost all judgments of people come in abstract terms. We do not often tell our friends how somebody actually behaved. We tell them he was courageous or kind or sociable or mean. These abstract words are supposed to tell our friends about somebody's actual behavior. But often they don't. The words are often misunderstood. I tell you, for example, that my friend George is a sociable fellow. What I mean is that George genuinely likes people, that he has many friends and spends a great deal of time with them. He is quietly sociable, never making much noise or to-do in a social situation and he doesn't like noisy parties, but he's a sociable fellow. You, having your own notion of what the word sociable means, decide that you will invite George to a party, for you like people at parties who drink hearty, sing loud and make a lot of noise. When George arrives at your party, you decide I am a very poor judge of people. George is obviously not sociable (in your opinion). He just sits around quietly talking to people.

This sort of thing happens often when you judge people. You assume that when you say any man is competent, loyal, trustworthy and kind, your friends will know exactly what you are talking about. They may think they do, but as in the case of George, they may have some surprises coming.

To avoid such trouble tell people what the man we are judging actually does. We need to talk about behavior if we want to be understood. Instead of using the word "trustworthy," we could tell about the behavior that led us to believe that the man is well described as trustworthy. What would he have to do—actually do—to be accurately described as trustworthy?

In his day to day activities the Chief Petty Officer will of necessity, judge his people and select from among them for various purposes. Because both men and special jobs differ radically, it behooves the CPO to learn all he can about making judgments.

The first step in selecting a person for a job is to know the job; the second step is to know the person. Briefly this means that the CPO will examine the job for its special requirements and then examine the person to see if that individual can fill those requirements.

The following rules will assist you in making accurate judgments of people.

- Don't be a quack.
- Look at behavior.
- Study a big sample of behavior.
- Be suspicious of your prejudices.
- Watch the relativity of your judgment.
- Judge one trait at a time.
- Watch out for abstract words.

RECOGNIZING THE INDIVIDUAL

While the Navy is composed of groups—and these groups—crews, squadrons, fleets—must be led as groups, you as a naval leader spend much of your time dealing not with groups but with individual persons.

You must often deal with the personal problems of individuals. You likely contend with petty quarrels among individuals, homesickness in individuals, domestic troubles of individuals, and disciplining of individuals. You must manage yourself as an individual. Your value to the Navy depends in large part on your ability to understand and manage the individual.

To sharpen your perception of the individual, we shall look at the ways individuals differ. We will examine individual abilities, individual achievement, and individual capacities.

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

While all of the basic needs we discussed in chapters 3 and 4 are common to everyone, they are not present to the same degree in each individual. Some workers desire recognition above security; others want security more than anything else. For example, a young seaman just out of high school may be more interested in opportunities for advancement than in security. An older worker with four children and a mortgage on the house may be interested in just the opposite.

There are all sorts of differences in people such as attitudes, abilities, aptitudes, interests, experience, emotions, education, age, knowledge, skill, physical strength, religion—and on and on ad infinitum. What do these differences mean to you as a leader? Many things, but a few of them are: They have a bearing on assignments; they have a bearing on growth potential; they have a bearing on the worker's stability; and they have a bearing on the way the worker acts and reacts.

Individual differences can affect the way you assign your work. If the work you want done requires heavy lifting, you would look for workers who are physically strong. If the work involves a lot of high pressure you would try to assign people who are emotionally stable. You wouldn't want a shy person in a job as a receptionist

or interviewer where new people are constantly being met. You usually take into account a person's formal education where it relates to the type of work you are doing. Here again, we could go on and on, but these examples illustrate the importance of considering individual differences when assigning work to people.

Let's look at another example that will show how even the same worker will react differently to the same statement at two different times. Suppose a supervisor walked up to a worker in the radio repair shop and said, "Say, Louis, I see that you finally got rid of that transmitter." The supervisor was referring to a transmitter that had some very difficult circuits in it. Louis had worked very hard and almost had to rebuild the set. He was proud of the job he had done and took the supervisor's comment as somewhat of a commendation.

Now, suppose the same supervisor approaches Louis in the same way and said the same thing. However, in this case, Louis had worked for hours on the equipment and was unable to locate the trouble. Another worker checked it over and in about 20 minutes had it repaired. Louis was somewhat angry at himself for not having found the trouble. He was sitting at his bench pondering the situation when the supervisor came up with the same remark. Naturally, the worker's reactions would be quite different in these two cases.

Feelings of individuals are more often conditioned by emotion than by fact or logic. You cannot change the emotional nature of your people, but through study of the individual and the situation you can learn how to help your people adjust to a situation.

We mentioned how individual differences should be considered in making assignments and dealing with workers in satisfying their basic needs. The supervisor, then, has to work differently with each individual in establishing a good job atmosphere. Thus, while dealing with workers resolves itself into recognizing and satisfying their job wants, it is not a simple task. Workers don't come to you and say, "I want recognition," or "I want security," or "I want to be a part of the group." Rather, they reveal that these basic urges or desires are motivating them by their attitudes, emotions, and actions. They do this in a manner that is peculiar to their own individual makeup. The indications are varied and sometimes violent. When desires become thwarted, reactions result that should signal the supervisor that something is wrong.

It is probable that you have seen a seltzer tablet dropped into a glass of water. Notice that these are two outwardly quiet and apparently harmless substances. One is a glass of water and one is a tablet. When the two come together reaction occurs. Can you stop it? No. You can heat the water or stir it, but that only speeds up the action. You can take the tablet out, but there is still some action going on and furthermore something has happened to the glass of water. When the reaction stops, the water looks exactly the same as it did before, but is it the same? It isn't. No matter what we try to do, the glass of water will never be exactly the same as it was before.

So it is with people. Each action and reaction that a person has with another may change his internal structure. Outwardly he may even appear to act the same, but inwardly he may have changed. The more violent the reaction, the greater the change. Whether the change is in a positive direction depends on the nature of the reaction.

Of course, the individual is not just a home chemistry set from which we get standard reactions. Every time you drop a seltzer tablet into a glass of water, you know what reaction to expect. Such is not the case with people. Each individual reacts to each situation in his own unique way. That reaction is conditioned by the manner in which the situation meets — or defeats — his basic needs.

The key to good human relations is to know your people and their individual desires well enough to help them get job satisfaction. To guide worker actions, it helps for you to know enough about your people to be able to determine the approach you should use to get positive reactions. A good starting point is an objective and orderly study of people and their actions. Let us begin by comparing the individual systematically, objectively, and quantitatively with others.

Distribution Of Individual Differences

Suppose that you have a hundred men in your unit and that you sit down to decide their intelligence. You might go about the job in several ways. You might make one list of all the "stupid" guys and another list of all the "bright" guys. Or you might make up three lists — (1) dull (2) duller and (3) dullest. If you went about it this way, and if you are at all smart, you would soon decide that all the men

on your "bright" list are not equally bright. Some are certainly brighter than others. And the ones who are at the bottom of the list are much like some of the ones in the "stupid" list. You can't think straight about human beings if you think in terms of bright or stupid, tall or short, good or bad. Most people are neither bright nor stupid. They range from bright to stupid. The majority are somewhere in between. Most people are neither tall nor short. They are somewhere in between. This sort of business brings up two important points about individual differences. These are points you ought to remember when dealing with individuals:

1. Individual differences are distributed over a range.
2. Few individuals fall at either end of the range: most of them fall in the middle.

We can clarify these two points by looking again at the intelligence of your 100 men. If you get test scores on your men, you will find that one or two of your men are very intelligent, have very high I.Q.'s (Intelligence Quotients). A couple will perhaps have very low I.Q.'s. But most of them have I.Q.'s that are close to average. The I.Q.'s of your group may range from 79 to 145 with the rest of your men falling in between. A few will have I.Q.'s around 130, a few more will have I.Q.'s of 115 or 120. A majority will have I.Q.'s between 110 and 90.

Whatever characteristic you are talking about—intelligence, height, weight, strength, endurance, extroversion, or size of shoe, you will find that (1) individuals differ over a range and (2) that most people are near the average point in that range.

As an example, look at figure 5-7 and see how 160,000 Army recruits are distributed with respect to Army General Classification Test scores.

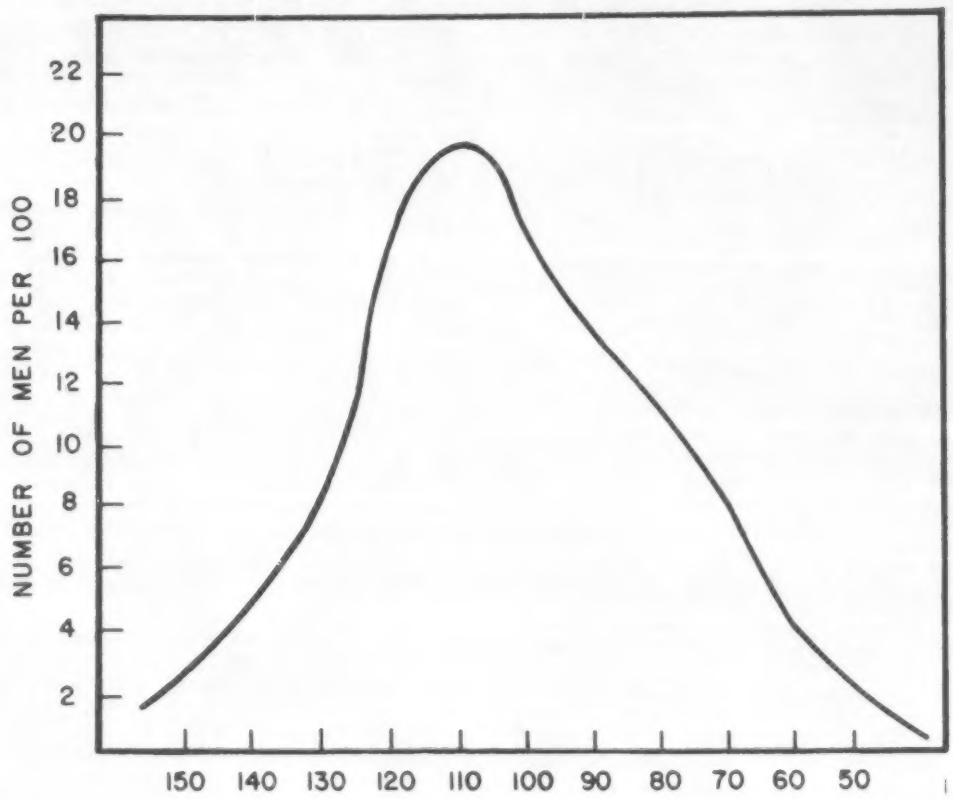

Figure 5-7. 191.14

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Most of these men have scores in the middle range. Over sixty per cent have scores between 80 and 120. These sixty per cent is split between the high scoring men and the low scoring men. It is clear that high scoring men are not plentiful. Nor are the low scoring. Only rarely do we encounter a man gifted enough to learn Latin at age four or to do multiplication at five. With equal rarity do we find the individual sufficiently stupid to forget to pull in his head before he lowers a window.

The same sort of picture turns up when we measure almost any human attribute. Take the data in figure 5-8 on the heights of the first one million men recruited at the beginning of World War I.

Here again, few people fall at the extremes, many fall in the middle. Both dwarfs and giants are so rare that we are willing to pay admission to see them in sideshows. When a man is as short as 5'2" or as tall as 6'5", he is sure to cause comment as he passes down the street and is sure to experience difficulty in using furniture or wearing clothes designed for the average sized man. If you have a job requiring a man 3 1/2 feet tall (like the job of riveting on the inside of an airplane wing) you'd have to look a long time to find him. If you needed a man 5 feet tall, (three to four men out of 1,000 would qualify) he could be found a little more easily. But a man 5'9" tall would be very easy to find. There are a lot of them around. If we

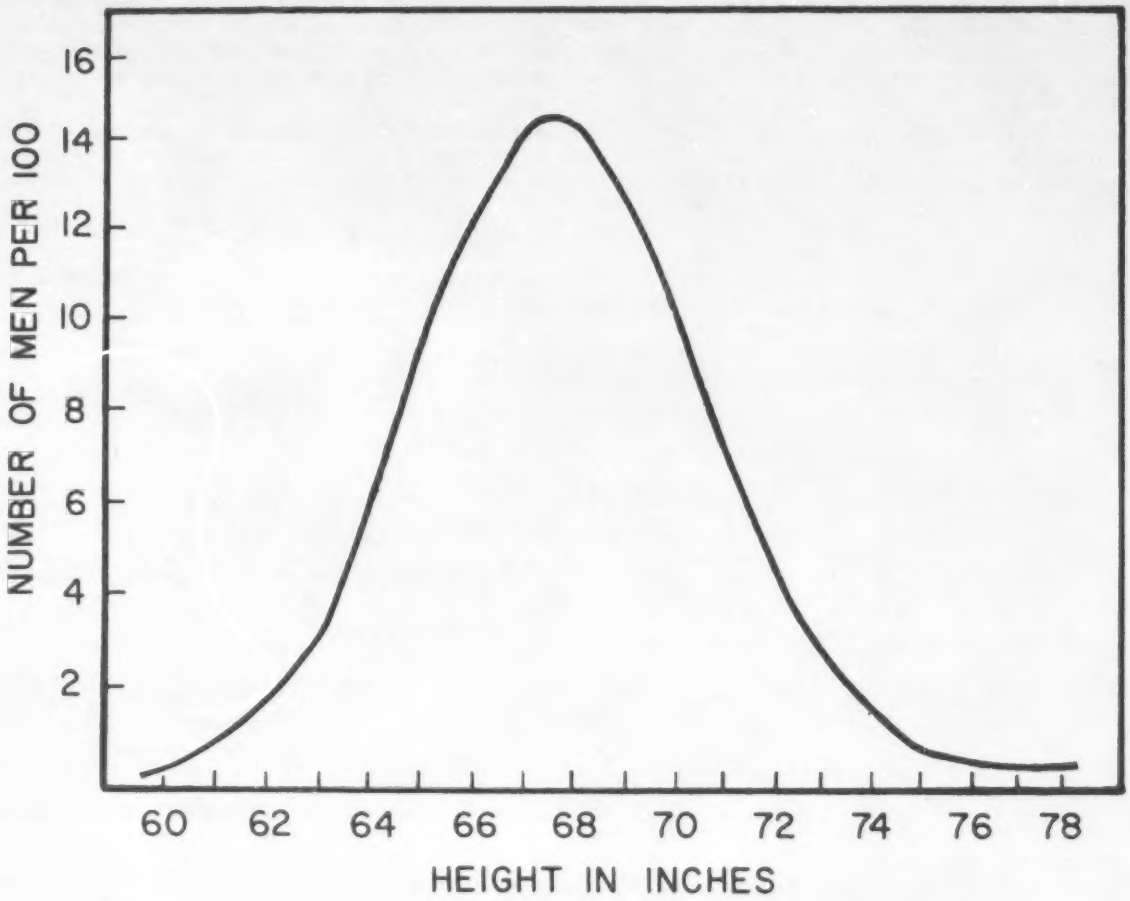

Figure 5-8. 191.15

need a man 7 feet tall, we again must search a long time to find him.

The bell-shaped distribution curve such as we have in figures 5-7 and 5-8, turns up again and again in dealing with individual differences.

Consistent Individual Differences

Two men run a hundred yard dash. One is timed at 9.8 seconds, the other at 10.4 seconds. Do these men differ? Or do they differ only on this specific occasion? If we are going to decide which of these men to enter in a track meet, such a question takes on considerable importance. We are interested in consistency of performance.

If we observed these two runners often enough we might find that the time of the first one varies between 9.8 and 10.1 seconds, while the time of the second runs from 10.1 to 10.4 seconds. In such a case we might expect the two men to tie occasionally, but as the first is consistently faster than the second, he will win more races.

Whether we are timing dash men or measuring the sensitivity of the eye, we almost always find that a given individual varies. Before we can talk about the differences between any two individuals on any attribute or on any performance, we must know something of the range of variation for each of the individuals. Is the first faster than the second some of the time, most of the time, or all of the time? Do they differ consistently? More precisely, how consistently do they differ?

Only when one man demonstrates a relatively consistent performance can we talk meaningfully about his attributes—whether the attribute we wish to talk about is speed in a race, output at a manual task, as trait of personality, or a score on a test. No two individuals can ever be said to be completely different in any attribute or in any performance if their ranges of variability overlap at all. We are generally satisfied, however, to speak of differences if the averages are really different.

In most measurable but variable human performances, the symmetrical bell-shaped curve of distribution best describes what happens. If the expert rifleman is shooting at a target, for example, his average number of bulls eyes over a period of time might be 22 out of 25. During six months of shooting, his daily scores may vary from 19 to 25. His most frequent score is 22. He rarely gets as low as 19 or as high as 25. The curve for his performance then would look like A in figure 5-9. A less proficient performance (average score of 19) might have a curve of performance like B in figure 5-9.

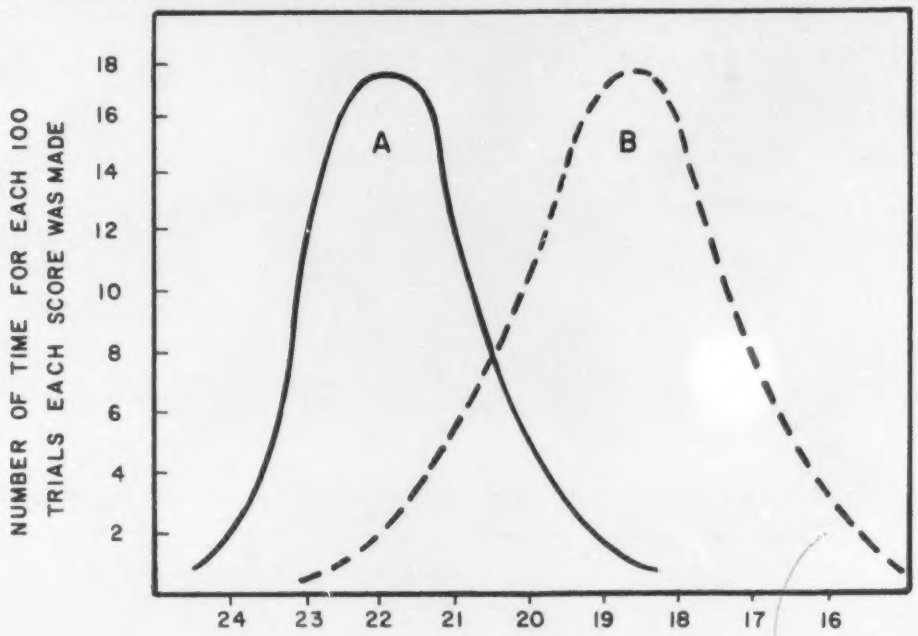

Figure 5-9.

191.16

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Since these two curves overlap, it is clear that marksman B would beat marksman A in a certain number of days, but there can be no doubt that our A man is a better man to have on our side if there's shooting to be done.

Differences in Motor and Sensory Functions

No matter how small a bit of behavior we may become interested in, we can count on finding that individuals differ with respect to it. For most practical purposes individual differences in tiny aspects of behavior do not matter much in themselves. But the speed, accuracy and sensitivity of motor and sensory reactions have a lot to do with more important individual differences in performances on the job.

One aspect of behavior is reaction time. Reaction time is the time it takes a person to make a response. If you seat a number of people and tell them to press a telegraph key when a red light flashes, you will find that some individuals are consistently faster than others. The faster person may be a tenth of a second faster than the slowest person. Such a difference may seem negligible. But in an age where things move at thousands of miles an hour, and where people must control their movements, a tenth of a second sometimes becomes a tremendous amount of time—the difference between a hit or a miss with a bomb, the difference between a crash or a safe landing, the difference between living or dying. In an ordinary situation the person with a fast reaction time on the highway may be able to stop a car from fifteen to thirty feet sooner than the person with a slow reaction time.

Individual Differences In Performance

If you take fifty men at random, train them all well and equally, and then measure their performance on a job such as receiving radio code, you will probably find that your best man is about twice as good as your worst man. Individual differences add up, making for tremendous differences among people. On almost any job, some people come equipped with great aptitude, others have built-in ineptitude. Training may not erase these differences. If we give our good men and our poor men equal training, the differences between them may be increased. The good man often has not only the aptitude to do the job better at any stage of training, but also the aptitude to profit more from training. Training may increase the average output of the group, but training often "takes" better on the people who are already good at that task.

As people come equipped with built-in differences that show up in performance of a job, we naturally try to choose those people for our jobs who will give us the most output. This is the basic reasoning behind selection tests.

Definition Of Terms: Performance, Ability, Aptitude, Achievement

Performance generally means what a man does—his behavior, his output.

Ability is often confused with performance and indeed it sometimes means essentially the same thing. Ability has two shades of meaning. It often applies to consistent performance. A track man may perform poorly in a specific race but still have considerable ability. His ability may mean his performance over a period of time. Ability is also used to refer to what a man can do now if the situation is right. It sometimes refers to potential performance. The track man may have a sprained ankle that impairs his specific performance, but his ability is not doubted. We sometimes say "He could do it if he tried." We think he has potential performance—or ability—that does not show itself in the specific situation we are observing. Of course, we never see ability except by looking at performance.

Both performance and ability refer to the present—to what the man is doing or can do now. Aptitude, on the other hand, refers to future performance and future ability. If we were selecting radio men from a group of raw recruits, we would not select on the basis either of performance or ability. They cannot perform and they have no ability in radio work. But some have great aptitude for learning these skills and some have little. Some are potentially not good radio men and training may not make them into good radio men. Aptitude refers to potential skills, potential abilities. A person's aptitudes indicate what he can eventually produce on a certain job.

Achievement generally refers to past performance. It often means performance evaluated. Generally we compare past performances of one individual with past performances of others. "He

was first in his class at Annapolis," or "Out of fifty people in the Navigation class, he got the lowest grade." Often we use the word achievement in a more evaluative and less precise sense. We say "champion, genius, etc." to refer to an individual's past performance as compared to other past performances.

Frequently, in conversational situations, we talk about a man's aptitude or performance or ability or achievement without tying these terms down to specific jobs. People do not merely have great aptitude or great ability. They have aptitude or ability for something. Aptitude and ability describe the person's relation to past, present, or future performance in a specific job or activity. When we say, "He is a man of great ability," we are merely expressing vaguely a relation between us and the man. When we say, "he demonstrates above average performance in navigation, in seamanship and in calculus," we are getting close to a factual statement.

Individual Differences In Intelligence

The term "I.Q." (meaning Intelligence Quotient) is widely used among laymen. Its wide use indicates that intelligence is an important aspect of behavior. In our culture a high I.Q. is a valued asset. Some people have higher I.Q.s than do others. We apply the term "intelligent" to a variety of behaviors such as rapid learning and rapid solving of problems. Specifically, the behaviors required on an intelligence test include working with numbers, definition of abstract words, rearrangement of familiar facts, memorizing of material, finding of similarities and differences among objects or pictures of objects. Supposedly, these behaviors tap certain underlying abilities. We can think of intelligence as a composite general ability, made up of such things as the ability to solve problems, the ability to learn rapidly, the ability to grasp broad and abstract facts, and the ability to use and understand words.

Intelligence involves a variety of behavior and a variety of abilities. The standard test of intelligence samples many different abilities and estimates general, over-all ability.

An individual's performance on an intelligence test is expressed in terms of the I.Q. (intelligence quotient). As the I.Q. is complicated, let us look briefly at the way intelligence tests are constructed. It is easy to observe that the ability to solve problems, to manipulate symbols, etc., varies with age. We expect the ten year old to perform better than the five year old. If we want to know whether the individual ten year old is "normal" in intelligence, the thing to do is to compare his intellectual performance with that of the average ten year old. We determine his mental age by comparing his mental performance with people his age. If our ten year old performs mentally as well as the "average" ten year old, he has a mental age of ten years. If he performs as well as the average twelve year old, he has a mental age of twelve years. Similarly, if he performs no better than the average eight year old, he has a mental age of eight years. We get the boy's I.Q. by comparing his mental age with his chronological age. If the ten year old has a mental age of twelve years, we divide his mental age by his chronological age to get an I.Q. of 1.2 (which is generally expressed in whole numbers as 120). If his mental age is ten, his I.Q. is 100; if his mental age is eight, his I.Q. is 80, and so on.

In general, scales for measuring intelligence are devices for computing mental age. By using a properly designed test, the ten year old can be compared with the "average" child of any other age. The test gives his mental age. From that fact and his age in years, we can compute his I.Q.

When we deal with adult intelligence we adopt a different procedure. Mental ability doesn't increase in the average person after he reaches the age of fifteen or sixteen. Thus, mental age, for the average adult, is fifteen or sixteen years. Actually it is debatable as to whether we should use the term I.Q. for adults. It is better to talk in terms of actual scores on actual tests. But the I.Q.'s of adults are talked about and can, by some fairly intricate assumptions and computations, be determined. When we determine the I.Q. of an adult we make an estimate of how that individual's intelligence compares with that of the average adult, whose I.Q. is 100.

We see in figure 5-7 that individual I.Q.'s tend to distribute themselves according to the normal probability curve. Few people have extremely high I.Q. Most people have I.Q.'s near the average. Similar data are presented in Table 5-1.

Table 5-1. — Classification of General Ability as Measured by the Revised Stanford-Binet Scale, with Approximate Academic and Vocational Possibilities of Each Group[1]

I.Q.	Percentage of Children[a]	Adult Mental Age in Years and Months	Classification	Academic Possibilities	Vocational Possibilities
140 and up	0.6	21 and up	Very superior	Graduate	Professional, executive
120-139	9.9	18-0 to 20-1	Superior	Technical	Professional, technical
110-119	16.0	16-6 to 17-11	High Average	College	Technical, business
90-109	47.0	13-6 to 16-5	Average	High School	Clerical, skilled
80-89	16.0	12-0 to 13-5	Low Average	9th Grade	Semi-skilled
70-79	7.5	10-6 to 11-11	Inferior	7th Grade	Routine work
60-69	2.4	9-0 to 10-5	Borderline deficiency	5th Grade	Unskilled labor
50-59	0.5	7-6 to 8-11	Deficient	3rd Grade	Simplest labor
Below 50	0.1	Below 7-6	Very deficient	Special Class	Unemployable

[1]Pressey, S. L. and Robinson, F. P., Psychology and the New Education. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1933 pp. 89.

[a]These percentages will be found to be approximate for white children of school age whose parents are native-born. They are calculated on the assumption of a normal distribution with a standard deviation of 16 points of I. Q. The adult "Mental Ages" are the Stanford-Binet mental age scores that these children will have to obtain to have the same I. Q.'s respectively that they had as children.

191.17

To talk precisely about a person's intelligence we must talk in terms of exact I. Q.'s or exact scores. We should designate the test used in measuring the I.Q., for as we will soon see, two different tests may give the same individual two different I.Q.'s. Table 5-1 gives the descriptive classifications generally used to describe various levels of intelligence.

Intelligence And Achievement

Table 5-1 lists the academic and professional possibilities for the various levels of intelligence. This takes us into the problem of what a high or low I.Q. means. What if a man has an I.Q. of 140? What does that mean in terms of what he can do? What if his I. Q. is only 75? Table 5-1 indicates that an individual, who has a superior intelligence, is mentally equipped for graduate work in a university or for administrative jobs at the professional level. Having so high an intellect, however, does not insure that the man will achieve in either of these or in any other field. Achievement is based on much more than native intelligence. It may depend on opportunity, on overall personal adjustment, on sheer luck. There are many people who have failed miserably in life though equipped with high intellect. There are those who have achieved success in challenging walks of life despite relatively low native intelligence. The possibilities mentioned in Table 5-1 are to be loosely interpreted. We cannot with certainty say that every person with an I. Q. of 120 ought to enter a profession or that no person with an I. Q. of 110 should. But we can say that a person with an I. Q. of 70 has a great chance of failing college studies and that a man with an I.Q.

of 130 would not be mentally challenged on a job involving nothing more intricate than a pick and shovel.

Some evidence on the I. Q.'s of famous people illustrate the practical meaning of intelligence. Terman and Cox made a study of 282 famous people to find out something about the native intelligence of geniuses. From biographies, letters and other evidence of the childhood accomplishments of these famous people, they estimated their I.Q. Here, for example, is a childhood letter from Sir Francis Galton that bears on his performance as a child:[1]

My dear Adele:

I am 4 years old and I can read any English book. I can say all the Latin Substantives and Adjectives and active verbs besides 52 lines of Latin poetry. I can cast up any sum in addition and can multiply by 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, (9), 10, (11). I can also say the pence table. I read French a little and I know the clock.

FRANCIS GALTON
February 15, 1827

Here are the estimated I.Q.'s of a few of the people to whom Terman and Cox gave posthumous intelligence tests:

Name	I.Q.
Galton	200
Goethe	185
Voltaire	170
Tennyson	155
Longfellow	150
Jefferson	145
Franklin	145
Darwin	135
Napoleon	135
Washington	125
Lincoln	125
Grant	110
Faraday	105

[1] Terman, L.M., and Cox, C., Genetic Studies of Genius I. Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1925.

If you pick 100 CPO's at random in the Navy it is likely that at least one or two of them will have a higher I. Q. than Faraday or U. S. Grant.

Primary Abilities

We saw previously that there are many specific behaviors and at least several abilities that general intelligence tests measure. It is now thought that the general ability the tests test can be reduced to a relatively small number of primary abilities — such as number ability, verbal ability, memory ability, visualizing ability, perceptual speed, induction and deduction. A person who has great ability in one of these primary abilities tends to be good in all. But this is not necessarily the case. A person can have great ability in numbers, for example, without being particularly good with words or in memory. One test of general intelligence may touch heavily upon one of these primary abilities; another test may touch it lightly. The individual taking the two tests may end up, consequently, with two different I. Q.'s.

Intelligence And Jobs

We have seen that intelligence and achievement are different things. But intelligence obviously has a good deal to do with performance on the job. Intelligence tests are used to select people for some jobs because it is known that scores on intelligence tests do relate to performance on jobs. No draftee was accepted into the Army or Navy, for example, unless he demonstrated a certain degree of general intelligence. And no enlisted man in the Army was accepted for officer's training unless he had a certain score on the General Classification Test — a test of intelligence. Generally speaking, the more complicated the job — the more intelligence is demanded of the man who does it. We never know, however, just how much either general intelligence or specific ability in one of the primary areas has to do with performance on a given job until we find out. Before we can rightfully use an intelligence test as a selection test, we must know in advance how important intelligence is for that particular job. This is a problem in test validity. The general point is this: We do not know whether intelligence test scores have any bearing on job performance until we find that people who get high scores on the test do better at the job than do the people who get low scores on the test.

Individual Differences In Personality Traits

Each individual, born with certain built-in tendencies, makes some matter of adjustment to the intricate environment he must contend with. The basic problem in personality is to account for and describe the individual's mode of adjustment, his consistent ways of behaving in his daily life.

A trait, strictly defined is a consistency in behavior that sets one individual off from another. When we observe behavior in the individual we almost always see certain recurring behaviors. And one man's recurring behaviors are different from those of another.

Here is Joe in your unit who consistently takes the initiative in his social environment. He consistently imposes his will and his ideas on his fellows. He takes the lead whenever possible at parties, in games, in discussions. There is a consistency in his behavior, namely — dominance.

Joe's friend Bob, behaves in a way that seems almost diametrically opposite. He rarely takes the initiative, being ready to follow the lead of someone else. He gives in easily to outside pressure. He rarely imposes himself on other people. He does not oppose the social forces about him. We use the word submissiveness to describe his behavior. He is a submissive man.

Traits, then, are words that we use to describe or tie together specific behaviors that happen consistently in the life of the individual. Everybody uses traits in talking about people. But not everybody uses them carefully. The careless use of traits leads to misunderstanding, poor diagnoses of behavior, poor prediction about what people will do or will not do. The careful use of traits can assist in understanding and dealing with people. To use a trait name properly, we must be sure

(a) that it refers to the actual behavior of the individual and

(b) that the behavior is consistent behavior.

Further, we should remember traits are not either-or classifications. Just as we cannot put all people into either the bright class or the stupid class, we cannot force people into the dominant class on one hand or the submissive class on the other. Most people are neither dominant or submissive, bright or dull, tall or short. Most people fall between the extremes of almost any scale or range.

Recognizing that people differ in their total pattern of traits, a successful leader treats people as individuals. He does not treat all recruits as if they were alike, or all officers or all young people. If all recruits were alike or if all old people were alike, he could learn one set of rules for all officers, another for all recruits, and life would be simple. Some people tend to do just that, but instead of making life simple, it makes life more confusing.

All members of the same sex are not alike. All members of the same race are not alike. All people the same age are not alike. If we expect them to be alike, we leave ourselves open to mistakes and surprises later.

Age Differences

"Old" people are clearly different from "young" people but the extent of the differences is easy to exaggerate.

Differences that go with age are differences due to the continuing process of growth, followed by the continual process of decay. In no physical or psychological function is the human individual ever at a stand-still. He is growing and improving or he is going downhill. In some functions, such as the speed of recovery from fatigue, the individual goes downhill from the day he is born. (Any adult who doubts this can collect fairly dramatic evidence by duplicating precisely all the physical activity of a one year old child. The adult will collapse from fatigue before the child is warmed up.) In ability to learn new tasks, there is a rapid increase up to the age of about 25, a gradual falling off 'till around 50 to 55, then a more rapid falling off. The peak comes at one age for one function, at another age for another. Individuals will differ in the age at which they reach a peak in any function. But the pattern is always there — growth, improvement, and increase until a peak is reached, then gradual decline.

Physically, the individual is generally at his peak around the age of 25. The ability to learn new physical tasks declines after this age. In World War II, for example, the Army Air Forces found that 18 to 20 year old cadets were better bets than those over 26; thirty percent of the younger group failed; forty percent of the older.

When the ability to learn new tasks is not involved, however, the peak may come later. Endurance reaches a peak around age 25. Maximum skill of performance in some physical activities may come at an age considerably later than the 25 year peak.

We saw previously that accomplishment does not by any means follow automatically in the wake of abilities. While in many respects a man's raw abilities are at a zenith early in maturity, his maximum accomplishment may come much later. A study of age of accomplishment showed that playwrights wrote their best between the ages of 30 and 40, novelists do their best work after the age of 45, and generals fight more battles and win a larger proportion of them before the age of 50. Industrial and business leaders reach a peak of accomplishment between 45 and 50. Scientists hit a peak around 50. Historians apparently reach a peak around 50 and 60.[1]

There are many factors, including opportunity and experience, that apparently can more than offset the decline in basic abilities and lead to accomplishment.

Generation-Value Gap

Today's young people are a new and different breed. Their views of the world differ greatly from those of their elders. The result is often a break-down in communications—the so-called generation gap between the two groups. We know that a person's values are influenced by his culture and that he directs his behavior to satisfy his needs. Therefore, let us examine some of these changes in our culture that helped generate these new perspectives of life.

We are in a time of technological developments, scientific breakthroughs, space exploits, urban growth, and the communications explosion. These changes in our society have brought new problems, pressures, and tensions as well as new opportunities, new jobs, and higher standards of living. They have produced new ways of coping with life.

These changes in our society have had a great impact upon today's youth. They are examining the traditional, established ways of doing things. They are revising or discarding old values and allegiances. They are adopting new values. They are experimenting with new life-styles.

Let us look at a fairly typical youth of today and examine some of the forces that have helped shape his viewpoints.

He grew up in a mobile society. He does not have a life-long commitment to any single job. He often moves from one locality to another. He changes jobs when new opportunities develop.

As he is accustomed to rapid changes in his society, he is less committed to the status quo. He is open to change and he often searches for new approaches to life's problems.

He has a wealth of information due to high educational standards and the mass communications media. He hears diverse, and often conflicting, viewpoints from many sources—television, films, radio, newspapers, teachers, parents, and friends. From this mass of information he makes decisions and sets his course. As he must question and weigh the facts, he is loath to accept ready-made or traditional answers.

He grew up in an affluent culture. His food, shelter, and security needs are generally satisfied and therefore do not dominate his behavior. Rather, he seeks to satisfy his social, status, and achievement needs.

These needs influence his thinking in various ways. He challenges the importance of material goods for his personal happiness. He looks for a better way of life that enhances his sense of personal worth and importance. He wants a degree of personal freedom. He desires recognition as a person of worth. He wants to contribute and to develop his abilities. He needs to know the reason for a policy or procedure. Above all, he wants to be personally involved rather than to be a "cog in the machine."

You can bridge the so-called "generation gap" by dealing with the young recruit in terms of the world he knows and by recognizing the forces in our society that influence his attitudes and behavior. You will thereby gain a more accurate perception of today's youth.

You more accurately understand your people when you recognize their individual differences. Each person has his own individual personality and each reacts differently to the forces in his environment.

To see how individual differences can affect the work environment, let's take a look at a day in the life of one supervisor. His name is Jerry; he isn't much different from you or me. He has ambitions, is conscientious, works hard, and

[1] Weinland, James D., General Psychology for Students of Business. New York: F.S. Crofts & Co., 1940. pp. 135-138.

tries to do the best job he can. Jerry is a Chief at a naval station. He has a real responsibility. To help him carry out his job he has three section petty officers first class who have the immediate responsibility over the work force. There is Woody—quiet, conscientious, and hard working; Steve, who is likeable, ambitious, and sure of himself; and last of all, there is Pat, dependable but not too confident of his ability.

Now the Chief knows his job. He wants to do the right thing. He tries to abide by the rules in dealing with his people. But for some reason or other he has his troubles. In spite of his earnest intent, his efforts to apply the humans relation approach sometimes seem to backfire. As the scene opens, we see him at his desk studying the work to be accomplished by his section.

The door opens and Woody enters.

Woody—"Hello, Chief. Can I see you a minute?"

Jerry—"Yeah, sit down, Woody."

Woody (Sitting by Jerry's desk)—Chief, we've got to do something about the parking problem. The fellows are complaining about it."

Jerry turns his back slowly and looks reflective. He takes a pad and pencil and jots down notes as Woody speaks.

Woody—(continuing)—"They really do have a rough time. It's almost a mile if they come around on the walk. On good days it's not too bad. They can come through that open field, but on rainy days it's just a sea of mud. Now I've got an idea. The instrument shop has a lot just a block from here and their shop is almost next door to our parking lot. If we could trade with them—see what I mean, Chief, if we could just trade lots with the instrument shop. We've got to do something about it."

Jerry (obviously hasn't been listening but has been writing a grocery list) "comes to" with a start—"Yeah, Woody, that's right we should. Now, do you have any ideas about it?"

Woody—(looking incredulously at Jerry)—"Do I have any ideas? Excuse me, Chief, for bothering you." (Gets up angrily. Turning on his heel, he stalks out, slamming the door.)

Jerry (looking after Woody)—"Now what's the matter with him? What's he so huffy about?" (Looking on his desk for his grocery list.) "Now where is that grocery list?" (Picks it up and puts it in his pocket; he then busies himself with paperwork about his desk, mumbling) "What did he want me to do—roll out the red carpet?"

That's right, Jerry. What did he get sore about? After all, you let him talk, didn't you? All you did while he was talking was to make out your grocery list. What was wrong with that? Well, never mind, it's water over the dam. At any rate you have other things to worry about. How about those special jobs that you've got for Steve and Pat? The Chief picks up work orders and prints and studies them.)

Steve (Entering office)—"Did you want to see me, Chief?"

Jerry—"Yes, Steve, I've got a couple of specials here." (hands work order and prints to Steve.) "I want you to take one and carry it all the way through. Plans and specifications are here. You're on your own from here on out."

Steve—"Gee thanks, Chief. I like to get these special jobs. It's a real challenge to get a job like this and carry it out on my own."

Jerry (Smiling)—"OK, Steve boy. Go ahead and take over."

Steve leaves as Pat enters.

Pat—"You want me, Chief?"

Jerry—"That's right, Pat. I just gave Steve a special job, and I've got another one here for you." (Gives prints to Pat.) "I want you to set the whole thing up and run it through. You're on your own on the whole deal."

Pat (Taking prints and looking at them doubtfully)—"I don't know, Chief. I'm not sure I can get this out in the time you want it."

Jerry (Getting angry)—"What do you mean you can't get it out? You've finished number 276, haven't you? And you have Jeff, Al, and Ted free to start this, don't you?"

Pat (Still doubtful)—"Yeah, I know, Chief. But getting this set up and going. Well—I'm just not sure."

Jerry (Angrily)—"What's wrong with you anyway, Pat? I give Steve a chance like this and he grabs at it. You tell me you 'don't know.' All right, give it here." (Grabs prints from Pat's hand and slams them down) "I'll talk to you later." (Digs angrily at his papers.)

Pat stares at Jerry for a moment, then shrugs his shoulders and leaves, slamming the door.

That's odd, isn't it, Jerry? You give both men the same chance. One grabs at it, the other says he "doesn't know." That's gratitude for you. Oh well, why let it bother you, and anyway you have other things to do. How about the week's production records? Better check them right now. They are due in half an hour.

Jerry (Finding production records)—"Let's see now—units per day 15, 18, 21, 17. That doesn't sound right. What is this? These are last week's figures. Why the devil does that girl have to pick a time like this to make that kind of mistake?" (Stomps to door, puts head out, and bellows angrily) "Mildred! Come into my office!"

Mildred enters, twisting her handkerchief in both hands and looking very nervous.

Jerry (Gruffly)—"Sit down!" (Pushes production chart in front of Mildred. Mildred starts to sniff and puts handkerchief to eyes.) "Well, what's the matter?"

Mildred starts to cry, jumps up from chair, and runs out.

Jerry—"Oh—what's the use!" (Slams papers down on desk)

That's right, Jerry—what's the use? With all these prima donnas you have to work with, you might just as well ask for the afternoon off.

Jerry stomps out of office, slamming the door.

Perhaps you have found yourself in situations much the same as those Jerry got into. When it happened, you were no doubt troubled by the conflict and tensions that arose. Certainly, the results of the situation were not favorable. Many times, much of a worker's irritability and tendency to react violently to a situation is caused by his personal problems which have nothing to do with the work situation. But, keep in mind that the whole worker comes to work. He cannot hang his emotions at the door the way he hangs his hat there. If a worker is worried and upset about something at home—his wife or children sick, some financial difficulty, or any number of things that can worry a person—you can be certain that this will affect his work. The point is, when you are sensitive to your workers' feelings and reactions, you will be better able to issue instructions in a manner that will insure that they are understood and accepted. This, of course, has a direct bearing on work output.

Getting along with your workers is more than just applying the rules. One rule of human relations is that, in most cases, you reprimand in private. You will remember that Jerry called Mildred into his office to reprimand her verbally for her mistake in making out the report. But also you will remember that he shouted angrily out of his office door for her and was very gruff with her after she entered his office. Obviously he didn't achieve any beneficial results. He didn't get the report out any quicker. Besides, it's a cinch that Mildred isn't overcome with the desire to do the maximum for him--so what did he accomplish?

How about Woody? Did he have any right to expect something that Jerry didn't give him? Sure he did. The least he could expect was Jerry's attention and interest in his problem. He had the right to be heard and to be respected for his ideas and suggestions.

Let's look at Jerry's approach to Pat and Steve. It's easy to see that Jerry failed to recognize that they were two completely different individuals and that, as such, they reacted to situations differently. Pat needed encouraging and the comfort of knowing his supervisor had faith in him. All Steve needed was the chance to go ahead, an opportunity to show what he could do.

If you are to be successful as a leader, you must be aware of two basic things that cause people to act as they do. One has to do with the basic needs of people and the other is the matter of individual differences.

Jerry has been having his problems. Let's see if we can give him some suggestions that would help him to understand his people better.

• Observation—Perhaps if Jerry had observed, he would have noticed that Pat was hesitant and Mildred was upset. These observations would have given him clues for further exploration of the problem.

• Questioning—By questioning he could have found out why Pat was hesitant and why Mildred was upset, thus having more understanding on which to base further actions.

• Getting workers' reactions—If Jerry had given his workers an opportunity to express their feelings and attitudes, he would have gained a clearer understanding of what difficulties his workers were having. He would also be giving workers a chance to study their own feelings and attitudes and thus better understand themselves.

Jerry failed to study situations to determine the difficulties his workers were having. Jerry's approach was "Who is to blame?" rather than "What are the conditions which created this situation?" He failed because he didn't identify the specific difficulties his workers were encountering. He failed to recognize their individual differences.

Supervisors may know theories of leading people, but when it comes to dealing with individuals, more specific knowledge is required. The supervisor must get to know his workers and understand their particular difficulties and needs. He must study the individual worker, learn his personal interests and problems, and know his reactions.

Now let's look at another incident. As you read the two approaches to the situation, ask yourself: Did Chief Petty Officer Meanswell

- Observe?
- Question?
- Give the worker a chance to express his own feelings and attitudes?

How It Could Have Happened

As Seaman Jensen hurried past the Master of Arms office, he was stopped by Chief Petty Officer Meanswell, "Jensen, will you come into the office a minute? I would like to talk to you alone."

Jensen entered the office obviously agitated and fidgety. Chief Meanswell started out in a kindly tone. "Jensen, I noticed your bunk wasn't made up this morning. Now you've been a good seaman up to now and I don't want to have to get harsh. Why don't you go right up and make up your bunk and keep up the good work from here on in?"

Jensen started to say, "But Chief . . . "

"No buts—Jensen. There's no excuse for letting a thing like that go." With that he gave Jensen a friendly shove out of the office and Jensen hurried on his way.

Later in the day Chief Meanswell remarked to the Division Officer, "I guess I will have to put Jensen on report. I told him in a proper manner to make up his bunk and he still hasn't done it."

"Come into my office a minute," said the Division Officer, "I want to talk to you."

How It Actually Happened

As Seaman Jensen hurried past the Master of Arms office, he was stopped by Chief Meanswell, "Jensen, I would like to see you in the office a moment."

Jensen entered the office obviously agitated and fidgety.

"You seem to be upset, Jensen, is anything wrong?"

"Yes, I received word this morning that my father is very ill and I am trying to get away on emergency leave."

"I see. I guess that explains why your bunk was unmade this morning."

"Well, yes. I was called up to the Red Cross before reveille but Jackson said he would make my bunk up. I guess he forgot. I'm sorry it didn't get made."

"That's O. K., Jensen, I don't want to hold you up under the circumstances. You've been a fine seaman and I was worried about the bunk. What can we do to clear the way for you?"

"I guess everything is taken care of, Chief. The Division Officer, himself, took care of all the arrangements. I have to hurry now to catch my flight."

"You'd better get along then. We'll take care of the bunk. I sure hope your father has a quick recovery."

"Thanks, Chief. I really appreciate what all of you have done for me!"

What was the difference between these two situations? Obviously, in the second incident Chief Meanswell made some effort to find out what was going on. This led to an entirely different course of action. In the first case, Chief Meanswell was friendly, gave praise first, talked to Jensen alone, but all of these good human relations techniques were to no avail because they were used without an understanding of the conditions. In the second incident, the chief didn't make this mistake, because he observed, he questioned, and he gave Jensen an opportunity to express his feelings. As a result, he gained a more accurate picture of Jensen's actions.

PERCEIVING ONESELF

Visualize yourself as the leader existing in three roles: the person that you actually are, the image that you have of yourself, and the ideal leader that you would like to be. Remember, we use the word "image" here to mean the concept that you have of yourself or that others have of you, not a false or haloed concept that you attempt to convey to others. In addition to the image that you have of yourself, your superior and your subordinates also have an image of you. These images may or may not coincide with the image that you have of yourself. Likewise, your superior and your subordinates have an ideal image of what you should be. Each of these persons is likely to react to his image of you rather than to the person you actually are. Further, the wider the gap between your associates' image of you and the ideal image they envision for you, the less reliable and desirable will be their reactions to your actions. See figure 5-10.

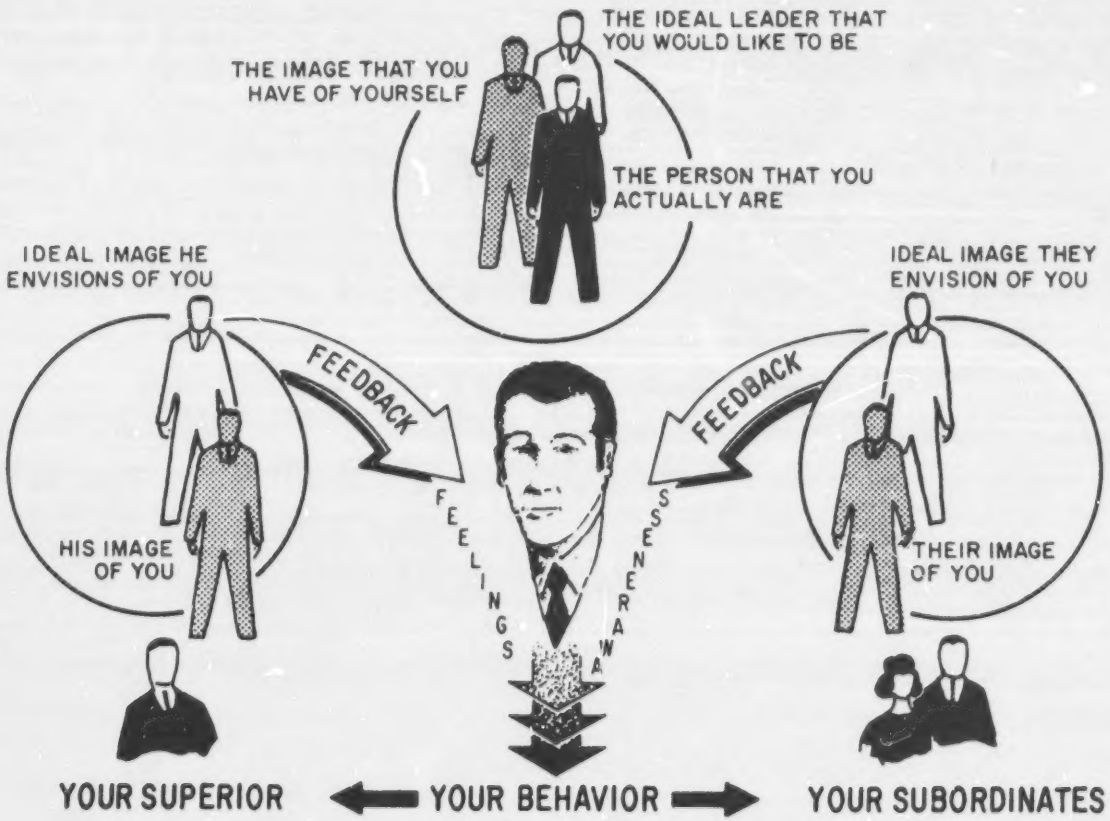

Figure 5-10. 191.18

Your subordinates, in observing and interpreting your behavior, may have an image of you as poker-faced, deadpan, or hidden behind a protective shell. As a result, they may feel slighted, insecure, or indifferent. They will give visual or audible evidence of these reactions. If you receive and interpret this evidence accurately, you can then modify your behavior to attain more desireable and productive reactions from others.

If, on the other hand, you try to avoid any discrepancy between your feelings and your behavior, the people whom you are trying to influence will have a better image of you. In effect, their image of you will be that of a person who is sincere, honest, open and genuinely interested in them as well as the unit mission. This image, shown by the feedback you receive, will become more nearly like their ideal image of you. As these images become more compatible with your image of yourself and the person you actually are, your relationship with others will be more predictable, more productive, and more pleasant.

In essence, your goal in perceiving yourself is two-fold. First, you want to identify your existing image of yourself with your ideal image of yourself and superimpose both of these images on the person that you really are. Second, you desire agreement in the image that others have of you, the ideal image they envision for you, and your real self. You can best attain these two goals by being aware of your feelings, by behaving in a way that reflects this awareness, by detecting and using feedback data, and by modifying your behavior to attain mission-oriented goals.

You can more accurately understand yourself when you establish the following goals:

- Gaining some insight into your own behavior
- Learning the impact of your behavior on others
- Testing your assumptions, values, and perceptions
- Recognizing your potentialities and capacities for growth

The first goal is for you to gain some insight into your own behavior. In group behavior, as in your daily work experience, you are in an environment that stimulates an awareness of your own behavior through both the intellectual and emotional learning that takes place. You are challenged to analyze your behavior in terms of desired effects. Thus you learn to think in terms of these questions: "How did I cause this reaction?" "How did I gain agreement in this area?" Once you analyze your behavior in these terms, you can then adjust your behavior toward more desirable results. If these results are not forthcoming, you should repeat the introspective analysis of your behavior, and so the process continues.

The second goal is for you to learn the impact of your behavior on others. This goal is met by perceiving and accepting the reactions of others to your actions. The key to the true perception of your impact on others lies in removing any barriers to a two-way communication process. Once you become open-minded, and thus more receptive to the reactions of others, your task is to interpret such responses accurately. Adjustment mechanisms can obstruct the validity of your interpretation. For example, if you rationalize or project the blame, you are ignoring your true impact on others. In short, to learn how your behavior affects others, you must be receptive to feedback, and you must be objective in interpreting the indicators thus received.

The third goal is for you to test your assumptions, values, and perceptions. For example, your actions toward others may be based on an assumption that by virtue of your position your ideas will be automatically accepted by your group. In any environment in which you realize your impact on others, you will soon discover that this assumption is not necessarily true. If you are in a position of authority, your people will probably react to that authority. However, this by no means implies that your people will wholeheartedly accept and automatically support your idea. As a military leader, you might assume that both productivity and personal relations would improve with a changed policy regarding working conditions. A discussion group might permit you to test this assumption by presenting it; by receiving and interpreting the response from the group; and then by modifying your assumption as necessary.

The last goal is for you to recognize your potentialities and capacities for growth. Basically this goal is accomplished by attaining the first three goals. If you develop a greater awareness of your own behavior, a more accurate perception of your impact on others, and a fuller realization of the validity and acceptability of your assumptions, values, and perceptions, you can better analyze your present achievements and project new levels of effectiveness for yourself and your people.

CHAPTER 6

MAN UNDER STRESS

Life presents conflicts and frustrations to all of us. The environment in which we live is by no means tailored to the needs of any one person. We constantly find ourselves having to make choices between needs that are seemingly incompatible. We want to go to the base movie, but we also want to stay in and study for the next pay grade.

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We want that next chevron and the added prestige but we don't want to work too hard for it. Often, our needs push us in opposite directions. Nearly every decision we make involves a weighing of pros and cons. We want to do something—but. As soon as that "but" enters the picture, we experience stress and tension—and the stronger the conflict, the stronger the tension.

We have said that man directs his behavior to reduce his tensions that are caused by his needs. Once he satisfies his needs, his pressures and tensions decrease, at least for awhile. But what happens if our needs cannot be satisfied, if our goals remain unfulfilled?

Man always has needs and all his needs can never be simultaneously satisfied. Many of our needs are thwarted. We want things that we cannot, for one reason or another, have. We seek goals we cannot reach. Someone, something, always seems to intervene to keep us from where we want to go, from what we want to do. Even in the minor details of day-to-day living, people, objects, and our limitations continually get in our way as barriers.

To cope with these roadblocks to our goals, our behavior takes many directions. Often, we compromise and choose a course that partially satisfies our needs. We may deny one need to satisfy a number of others. Or we may elect a "waiting game" and satisfy our needs one at a time, holding some in check while others are gratified. On the other hand, our needs may be diametrically opposed, and the satisfaction of one means that the other goes permanently ungratified.

With time we learn ways and means of coping with life's problems and conflicts. Our reactions to these demands may be constructive or destructive depending on the behavior that we adopt.

Conflict and frustration are sometimes considered synonymous, when actually frustration is a type of conflict. We shall discuss the types of conflict in this chapter and include an in-depth discussion of frustration as it is a conflict experienced by all of us at one time or another.

THE NATURE OF CONFLICT

The young Seaman Recruit finds boot camp strange—perhaps distasteful. He likely comes

from a home where he had a room to himself, and although he had to keep it clean, the placing of his clothes was not as uniform and exacting as in his new situation. He had jobs he liked in civilian life and he took considerable pride in doing them well. Now he finds that he has a strong urge to return to things that are familiar and more comfortable. For example, he would like a home cooked meal or to be free to take his girl dancing. In short, he longs for the fun and freedom of his civilian life. On the other hand, he feels very strongly the responsibility he assumed when he took the oath of enlistment and in those moments when going on unauthorized absence occurs to him, he realizes the full cost of the penalties attached to such action. If he reduced the situation to words, he would probably say, "I would give anything to be home tonight, but . . . . "

This young man is in a state of conflict, one that has caused many people much trouble.

Human conflicts vary from highly charged ones, where strong needs are involved, to mild conflicts where choice comes almost immediately. Our pattern of needs is so complicated that rarely can we react wholeheartedly to a situation. Almost everything we do or seek has its advantages and disadvantages. "I'd like that . . . but. . . ." is the characteristic feeling about most of the things we experience. That "but" introduces the disadvantages we ponder over as we ask ourselves "Is it worth the price?"

Conflicts are not in themselves inherently good or bad. They are simply a part of life and our human nature. They exist within persons, between persons and between groups. War is an extreme example of aggression resulting from unresolved conflict between groups.

Our concept of life includes coping with and adjusting to conflicts in our daily lives. These adjustments involve our emotions and may have good or bad results. If the Seaman Recruit resolves his conflict by deciding to go UA you can predict bad results for him if he is apprehended by military authorities. If he elects to fulfill his obligation to serve his country and not to dwell on the comforts of home, you can foresee results of a more positive nature.

His course of action depends on how well he tolerates his emotional conflicts. People differ in their capacity for withstanding conflicts. Some seaman recruits at boot camp almost immediately consider going UA. Others have great resistance to the new frustrating situation; they can tolerate frustration better and can apparently marshall their energies more successfully in their efforts to confront the frustrating situation.

In the process of growing up most of us learn that our needs cannot all be satisfied immediately. We learn to deny ourselves today so we can enjoy ourselves tomorrow and next year. Most of us learn to delay gratification of our needs.

Some people, however, never learn to tolerate frustration. The "spoiled brat" type cannot delay gratification. Nobody really knows much about the origin and development of this aspect of personality, but the belief that frustration tolerance is learned has a certain plausibility. The child whose every wish is granted by lenient parents may go through life expecting other people to do likewise. On the other hand, the child who doesn't get many of his needs satisfied may indulge in useless things such as fantasy, aggression, or regression—things we'll talk about later. The point is, the "spoiled brat" and the excessively deprived (and therefore frustrated child) both may be unable to sustain realistic effort in the face of frustration.

TYPES OF CONFLICT

We can roughly classify conflict into several types.

Attractive And Unattractive Courses Of Action

The first type is exemplified by the problem of the Seaman Recruit we talked about. His motives make going UA attractive and repulsive at the same time.

We frequently encounter this type of conflict in our daily lives. We want to succeed in the Navy but succeeding means hard and often disagreeable work. We want to marry but marriage means additional responsibilities. We want sea duty but sea duty may mean long absences from many friends. We like to drink but drinking may get us into trouble.

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In many—perhaps most—life situations we have to take the "bad" along with the "good." Such conflicts may become serious, leading to real indecision, when the "goods" and "bads" are equally strong.

Equally Attractive Courses of Action

A second type of conflict occurs when you have to choose between two equally attractive courses of action. Shall you go to the dance or to the movies? Shall you marry Mary or Jane, both of whom are ready, willing, and attractive? Shall you spend your extra money on a car or a boat, or on a suit or a topcoat? Having to choose between two equally pleasant courses of action is the most desirable sort of conflict to face but it still can interfere at least momentarily with the smooth and effective flow of behavior.

Equally Unattractive Courses Of Action

Then there is the less agreeable sort of situation where one must choose between two unattractive courses of behavior. Shall I spend my time on mathematics or navigation tonight? This seaman, who I like—shall I put him on report or shall I give him a good bawling out? Since my uniform hasn't come from the cleaners, shall I get it and report for duty late in a pressed uniform or shall I report on time in an unpressed uniform?

Frustration

Frustration is a common type of conflict and occurs when need-directed behavior is blocked. In human behavior, we have seen how a need arises, goal-directing behavior patterns are put in motion, satisfaction is achieved, and the need-tension disappears, at least temporarily. But we know that life is rarely that simple. Conflicts interfere with the basic behavioral process. Events occur that keep the person from going where he wants to go and doing what he wants to do.

When a man wants something he can't get, whether that something is as trivial as a lost pencil or as important as being the best in his profession, he is frustrated. And when he is frustrated, the simple directness of his behavior disappears. He characteristically becomes emotional. And his behavior may get him nowhere at all. To the casual observer, the behavior of a frustrated man often makes no sense whatsoever. But frustrated behavior is very human behavior and you who influence your men's behavior can benefit from understanding the kinds of frustrating situations people get themselves into and how people act when frustrated.

TYPES OF FRUSTRATION.—The people, objects, and situations that block our way as we struggle to satisfy our needs are almost endless in number and variety. But we can talk about them as general types.

There Are Impersonal Barriers.—The Man who needs cigarettes and finds the Navy Exchange closed presents a good picture of frustration. He may try other ways of getting cigarettes and if none of them works, he is certain to become agitated and irritated. Similarly, the cancellation of a scheduled airline flight, a traffic tie-up, busy telephone numbers, machines that won't work and countless other impersonal objects interfere with the day to day attainment of our goals.

People, As People, Frustrate Us.—People, probably more often and more disturbingly than

inanimate objects, hem us in and obstruct the attainment of our goals. They, of course, also facilitate our goal-seeking behavior but when each person has his own needs to worry about, it is inevitable that people are going to get in one another's hair. We can expect almost any human association – even friendship or marriage – to be frustrating at least some of the time. Friends and wives have their own needs and when their needs run counter to our own, somebody is going to be frustrated.

The frustrating of people by people is seen most clearly in the behavior of children. When two three-year olds are playing together, we can predict that sooner or later both will want the same toy at the same time. The frustrated child, not knowing the social art of compromise, often does some direct things about his frustration. The older child, for example, accustomed to being the only child in the family, may be acutely frustrated by the arrival of a new baby. The new child is a usurper, an interloper, something to get rid of. The baby is very much a threat to the child's status and sense of belonging. There are known cases where older children have tried the direct action of tossing the baby out the window, or of "doing it in" with a butcher knife. Adults, while almost as often and just as acutely frustrated by people, rarely give vent to their feelings in so direct a manner. But there are fist fights, assaults, and for that matter, murders.

People, As Enforcers Of Rules, Frustrate Us. – When any group of people live together, – whether as a culture, a nation, a Navy, or a crew, there have to be certain rules about who shall do what. The home, the school, military service, all of society in fact, operate under a set of formal and informal rules and laws, many of which are designed purely and simply to curb or control our behavior in the interest of the common good. These rules and laws are enforced by people – parents, policemen, managers, supervisors, COs, XOs, department heads, and division chiefs – with their sometimes elaborate series of do's and don'ts. Almost inevitably these people thwart some of our needs.

Again the clearest illustration comes from children. When the child gets to be a year or so old, his parents usually decide he is ready for a little training on how he should act in our society. From that time until the child learns to act in an acceptable manner, he is surrounded by numerous "do's and don'ts", many of which are incompatible with his natural desires. The parent, the enforcer of the rules and taboos, becomes for a time the child's enemy.

The parent, of course, is not the only voice of authority a person encounters. You must often enforce rules and procedures that are not wholly to the liking of all members of your crew. It follows that some of your people will be frustrated some of the time. You can clear the way for their cooperation and decreased antagonism if you find ways to make the rules and regulations sensible procedures for achieving long-run satisfaction. To an enlisted man in your crew who is interested only in his support of the unit and the ship, the rules will be only temporary bothers, of less importance in comparison with the long-term satisfaction he gets from abiding by them.

Being frustrated by people is generally more disturbing than being blocked by an inanimate object. In the first place, people are harder to figure out than a door that won't open. In the second place, we expect people to be reasonable and understanding; when they aren't, our frustration may be increased. In the third place, if we do what comes naturally under frustrating circumstances and attack the barrier, the human barrier might counterattack. It can hurt us physically or professionally, make us feel guilty, make us feel ashamed of ourselves. We can kick a door without any serious mental or emotional reprecussions, but any venting of anger on a human being likely produces a very complicated aftermath.

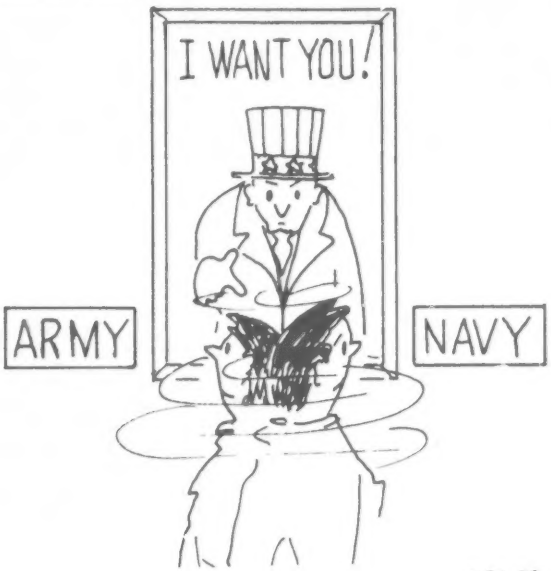
Our Inabilities Frustrate Us. – Sometimes we seem to be our own worst enemies, for our desires are sometimes blocked by factors we carry around with us.

One built-in frustrating factor is inability – a lack of physical or mental capacity to do what we want to do. Think of the healthy man who loses an arm or a leg. He is bound to experience frustration. The boy who wants to be a college football star who under no circumstances can get his weight up to more than 125 pounds is very likely to suffer almost excruciating frustration. Every year thousands of young people enter American universities, optimistically heading for law or medicine or engineering but sadly discovering after several months of exposure to academic life, that they do not have the kind of ability needed to reach their professional goals.

In many situations the individual's plans and expectations are not related to his actual abilities. Through the influence of ambitious parents, or through an unrealistic notion of his own abilities, he hitches his wagon to the wrong star. When his wagon turns out to be too rickety for the journey, defeat, bitter and disturbing, is upon him. When a person's level of aspiration is too far above his level of achievement, frustration results.

Conflicting Desires Lead To Frustration.— We have seen that, in situations involving conflict, a person must often choose one course of action and deny another. Or he may achieve a compromise which partially denies both of his conflicting needs while partially gratifying each. The partially or wholly denied need cannot be counted on to disappear. It is still with the person, sometimes with great insistence. If a course of action gratifies the first need and makes it impossible to do anything about the second, the second need is frustrated and influences the person's behavior accordingly.

When you make a choice between two attractive things, the denied attraction often loses potency the farther you get away from it. The man who decides to go in the Navy, instead of the Army is not often frustrated by not being at an Army post, once he is involved in life aboard ship.



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But this is a fairly superficial conflict. His basic needs involved (status, perhaps) can possibly be satisfied equally well by either of the two courses of action. But when we put a man in a situation where his basic needs are directly opposed to each other, one need will be frustrated. The man who finds that he can bring about the sort of status he needs only by occupying the place he inherited in his father's business but who, on the other hand, has strong needs to be a musician is in a highly-charged conflict. If he works in his father's business, his needs for artistic expression are going to be frustrated. If he adopts the artistic way of life, his needs for high status may be blocked, at least temporarily.

A positive need versus a negative one also produces frustration. The man who wants to lick the world but who is locked in inactivity because of fear of failure or fear of unfairness of competition or fear of his own inabilities is a frustrated man. His behavior will likely be characterized as a tense, dissatisfied grumpiness.

Often the negative needs in positive-negative conflicts are needs influenced by fear—the fear of what people will say, the fear of being caught and punished, the fear of making a fool of oneself. These blocks can frustrate positive needs, often more effectively and disturbingly than any external barriers.

Closely related to the barriers of social pressure are the conscience-barriers that the average person possesses. When a highly desired course of action conflicts with a person's code or conscience, or with the role he pictures for himself, frustration is likely. If, in time of temptation, a person's conscience is stronger than his desire, there is no real conflict and no severe frustration. Or, if his conscience is weak, he may steal, cheat, or rape without turning a hair. But when his conscience and his need are both strong, he experiences frustration. If he steals, he has the money, but he has a guilty conscience and feelings of shame and remorse. If he follows his code, he hasn't the material rewards he can get by sinning. If he becomes a success by ruthless competition, he may have a large income but at the same time he may feel guilty. If he refuses to play ruthlessly, he may have a clear conscience and very small income.

REACTIONS TO STRESS SITUATIONS

We know that needs cannot always be satisfied. Sometimes they die out and are abandoned; often they go into hiding, influencing behavior but wearing a mask. Like the body with its elaborate system of physical defenses, the mind too has a complicated defense system, a method of adaptation to the environment.

These methods of adaptation are known as adjustment mechanisms, sometimes called defense mechanisms. We are never conscious of them, because once we are aware that we are using a device to reach a goal, it ceases to be an adjustment mechanism and becomes a consciously applied way to satisfy a need. In effect, the adjustment mechanisms involve camouflaged behavior, but we are not conscious of the camouflage. If they have proved successful for us in the past, they come into play almost automatically when we are faced with new and difficult situations. They are unconscious and largely beyond our control, serving as devices to help us adjust to the situation and to preserve our self-image.

The use of mild adjustment mechanisms of one kind or another is a normal, routine, universal method of behavior. In no sense should their use be considered abnormal behavior. However, defense mechanisms can become undesirable when one or several of them dominate a person's behavior.

Distortion and selectivity are always at work in our daily lives. Five different witnesses to an accident may have different versions of what happened, and each of them is certain that his version is correct. Each of us interprets the things around us in a different way, and we each work out a standard way of facing them. This usually involves one or more of the adjustment mechanisms. Most of these mechanisms are so well-known that it is only necessary to sketch them briefly, always remembering they are normal, but hidden, sources of motivation. The following adjustment mechanisms are not a complete list but rather some common ones that you will probably observe in people around you.

First, let's take a hypothetical case to illustrate how several adjustment mechanisms may operate.

One night your color television set goes on the blink. You tell your friend, ETSC Chuck Fuze, who has a complete TV workshop in his home, about your trouble. He says, "Bring the monster over Friday night and I'll fix it." "Great," you say, "I'll be able to watch the game Saturday." As the set weighs 140 pounds, you ask your buddy, Chief Emil Poindexter, if he will help you take the set over to Fuze's house. You also ask him for his pick-up truck.

You and Chief Poindexter lug the set down your three apartment flights of steps. You both rest a few minutes. Then, you both carry it slowly down the walk and load it on the truck. You then drive the 20 miles over to Chief Fuze's house. You and your friend with much "huffing and puffing" carry the set up to the door.

You ring the doorbell; you wait. No one answers. You ring again; same result. You see a neighbor next-door.

You: "Is Chief Fuze home?"
He: "Why, no — he just left — said he wouldn't be back until tomorrow."

End of story. Two questions: (1) What are your feelings? (2) What would you do?

You may get angry. You vent your anger at Chief Fuze, or ETs, or at people, in general. You may say, "That Chief Fuze is a real 'so-and-so' ", or "You just can't depend on him or anyone — people are just no good." Or you might seek Chief Fuze out at work the next day and give him a piece of your mind. These acts are all aggressions directed at the barrier. Other outward aggressions are assigning blame, calling names, spreading scuttlebut, withholding approval, playing practical jokes, or even physical violence. You might want to punch Chief Fuze in the nose. Man has many devices for making his fellow man suffer — when his fellow man frustrates him.

On the other hand, you may direct your anger against yourself. You think and say derogatory things about yourself and you may devise ways to make yourself suffer for your shortcomings. You may say "It's all my fault. I should never have counted on him." This is inwardly directed aggression of which suicide is the most extreme example.

Unfortunately, people often react to highly frustrating situations with intense emotional feelings of aggression, often with negative results. For example, if you bawl-out Chief Fuze, he might react similarly and bawl you out.

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The end result may be no TV repairs, then or ever, by him. Frustration, and its child, aggression, are major causes of problems and unhappiness on the job, just as they are elsewhere in daily life.

But you might be that rare person who, instead of reacting aggressively, views the situation from a problem-solving angle, neither blaming Chief Fuze nor yourself. Instead of attacking, you search for reasons that help you understand and accept the situation without getting emotionally upset about it. You ask yourself "Which of us got the dates mixed-up?" or you think "Something important must have come up to prevent him from being here." You seek positive alternatives — taking your TV to another repair shop, leaving it with the neighbor, or taking it home and checking later with Chief Fuze, in a nonaggressive manner, of course. You treat the incident the way most of us would treat running out of stationery while writing a letter — annoying, but not worth losing our equilibrium.

What makes you treat the situation as a minor annoyance and not as a major obstacle? First, you are probably more confident and secure than the person who reacts aggressively. Your emotional equilibrium is not so easily threatened as your status and esteem needs are generally satisfied. Secondly, your adjustment to the situation is positive. You think the best before you think the worst. As your expectations are optimistic, you can accept the set-back with good grace and handle the problem in a more rational and successful manner.

AGGRESSION

We see that aggression may take several forms. If the frustration is produced by a person, the attack may be directed at that person. Aggression may also be turned inward because of lack of self-confidence.

Aggression may be of the non-directed type you often see in children's (and sometimes in adult's) temper tantrums — a wild and angry slashing away at any object within reach. Take the Chief who comes home after a day in which his C.O. disapproved of his work, his fellows demonstrated a definite coolness to him, and all his efforts to do his job met with failure. He may walk in the house, kick the cat, slam his coat on the floor, and belittle his wife's ability as a cook. He vents his pent-up aggression upon things and people who have nothing to do with his frustration. This sort of displaced aggression is frequent and ineffective. It often has serious social consequences.

The aggression may be misdirected because (a) the person may not be able to diagnose and understand what is frustrating him; (b) the person may know what is frustrating him but also knows that it is unwise to attack the frustrating object or person.

There are many frustrating situations in which we cannot understand what it is that's causing our distress. In time of economic depression, for example, though frustration is wide-spread, we are unable to comprehend the complicated and interlocking economic factors that cause our trouble. Even if we did understand, there would be no way of attacking an economic cycle or over-expansion or excessive inventories. The frustration is real nevertheless, and our tendency to aggression is present and strong.

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So we often find something or someone to blame. The President is a handy person to blame; Congress, too. During war, when frustrations are plentiful and hard to diagnose, the aggressions of people are turned on all sorts of relatively blameless things and people. The President and Congress are always there as lightning rods to catch our aggressions, and there's the Supreme Court, the Navy, the Army, etc. If we can't put our finger on the causes of our troubles, we sometimes pick on something or somebody else.

Sometimes we know what or who is the frustrating agent, but it isn't safe to attack that agent. The man who is berated by his C. O. and made to feel like a failure may get quite emotional, but he will rarely fight back. He is more likely to take it out on some seaman in his division. The child who is unduly frustrated by his parents rarely, after a certain age, has the poor judgment to attack his father. He may attack other kids — preferably ones that are smaller than he, and hence safer. Bullies, both of the child and the adult variety, are very often frustrated people who take out their aggressions on those who are in a poor position to fight back. You have probably seen some people in the Navy who berate their men, work their men unmercifully, not because their men have done anything to deserve it, but because they themselves can't get along with their wives or their C. O.s.

Scapegoating

Scapegoating is displaced aggression. When frustration is extreme and its source either unknown, unavailable, or unsafe to attack, there is a tendency to pick a "goat" as an outlet for our aggressions. The best goat is (1) convenient (2) safe and (3) in such a social position that we can convince ourselves that aggression is deserved.

If the members of a Navy crew are frustrated they may pick a certain member of the crew or occasionally a junior officer as the object of their aggression. The officer or man who becomes a scapegoat is usually one who (a) cannot fight back successfully (b) is "different" from his fellows and (c) appears at least superficially, to deserve ill-treatment. Any Navy crew is trained to withstand necessary frustrations. But when the crew is denied too many satisfactions — if liberty is too long restricted, if pride in the unit is impossible, if conditions of work lead to uncertainty, insecurity, and if rewards and punishments are inconsistent — aggressive outbursts can be expected. And conversely, when the crew or any of its members become embroiled in group or private aggression, you can profitably start an immediate search for frustration. The aggressions of a frustrated crew may take the form of surliness in the presence of officers, the choosing of a scape-goat, outbursts of fighting on board or ashore, many arguments, general unwillingness or refusal to work.

Aggressiveness is a wide-spread form of human behavior. Evidence indicates fairly clearly that aggressive behavior happens only as a result of frustration. While frustration may produce other than aggressive behaviors, aggressive behavior — whether in the group or in the person

can always be traced to frustration. This generalization is one of the most helpful that you can learn. It will guide you on numerous occasions in the diagnosis and control of human behavior—your own included.

Apathy

A person, hemmed in by barriers and confronted with continual failure, may sink into a state of hopelessness and apathy. He gives in, quits trying, convinces himself he doesn't care. This apathetic resignation can often be observed in prisoners of war, the chronic unemployed, the hopelessly crippled, and is not unknown among Navy men. It is an attitude of complete surrender. A person, unable to work out any way of getting along in a bitter and hostile world, draws into himself, becomes passive, gives up. Withdrawal from others or from cooperative, competitive situations is one way to avoid being hurt. The opposite of aggression, this insulation from the problems of life is a frequent reaction to frustration and ordinarily indicates deep hostility and resentment. Instead of turning outward, the person freezes into social inactivity.

ESCAPE

The person who fails to satisfy his needs may seek escape, either physically or mentally. Some people when caught in a frustrating situation get physically away from their predicament; they go to California, or quit their jobs, or catch a plane for Reno, or go UA. Other people prefer to escape in rich and satisfying daydreams. Small doses of fantasy and daydreaming are probably essential to all of us. We are all counterparts of Walter Mitty, the daydreamer. Fantasy lets us become in our mind's eye the great lover, the All-American, the Navy admiral. This is a simple way of solving all our problems. The question is where to cut it off. Daydreaming is so easy and satisfying it can easily be overdone. The dream world can become confused with the world of reality; our picture of what we wish we were gets confused with our knowledge of what we are. Fantasies become delusions when we believe our daydreams and deny the real world.

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RATIONALIZATION

Rationalization is the technique of justifying behavior that is unacceptable to ourselves and others. An excuse or an alibi appears better than facing reality. For example, we know we should study for the shipboard drill tomorrow, but we take the night off instead. When we flunk the drill, we feel the drill was unfair or the division officer was against us.

Putting our conduct in the best possible light is probably essential to our happiness; therefore, a moderate amount of rationalizing is an acceptable protective device. It becomes unhealthy and disruptive when we have an alibi for everything.

COMPENSATION

The frustrated person, denied one goal, may cast about for something almost as good. The man who wants to be a naval aviator but who washes out of flight training may enter aerial navigation and at least partially satisfy his needs. The man who wants to play football may, after a season of sitting on the bench, turn his energy to track or basketball where he might find more success.

When the frustration is due to a physical or mental disability, the original energy sometimes increases. Great accomplishments are sometimes achieved when this energy is directed toward a substitute goal. Theodore Roosevelt is one of the best known examples of this reaction to frustration. A puny child, he conditioned himself unmercifully until he became the rough-riding picture of strength and virility. Demosthenes is another example. Being a stutterer, the story goes, he engaged in long practices with pebbles under his tongue until he achieved great oratorical skill. Other possible examples include the small man who becomes the world's champion mountain climber, or the boy who is inferior to his brothers in academic work and so becomes the high school star halfback, or the homely CPO who is the best humored man aboard ship. Then there is the plain Jane who becomes an excellent conversationalist or the awkward boy who develops great skill in ballroom dancing. Many of man's greatest achievements are credited to men compensating for an observed or imagined defect.

On the other hand, compensation can become a further source of maladjustment and unhappiness if we fail in the substitute endeavor also. The boy who is no scholar may discover that he's a poor athlete; the plain Jane may find she's no scintillating conversationalist. A person already unhappy may find himself in a substitute situation that brings him neither success nor happiness.

Compensation does not always result in desirable substitute actions. For example, a man, failing to gain status by doing good work, may turn to horse-play, shirking duty, or worse, to show his buddies that he is smart enough to get away with it.

The most frequent type of unhealthy compensation is seen in the person who conceals his feelings of inferiority through aggression or boastfulness. You can bet that the man who continually boasts of his past exploits or his present status is compensating to camouflage his nagging feelings of inferiority and insecurity.

PROJECTION — SOMETIMES

We deny the reality of our own disagreeable needs by attributing them to other people. Admitting our limitations and faults is one of the most difficult things we can do. One solution is to suppress what is unpleasant in ourselves and project it to others. Thus we can attack others for what is disagreeable in ourselves.

Though it is possible to project worthy attributes, projection is more often unhealthy. If we have a socially unacceptable need, we may accuse others of the sin that tempts us. A reformer may be a person who sees evil in others, because he is projecting a temptation in himself. An incompetent supervisor, refusing to admit his own limitations, may blame his failure on the incompetence of his subordinates. The man who wants to cheat may criticize everyone else for cheating.

REGRESSION

Often, a person facing frustration adopts behavior he used years ago. He regresses to a once successful way of behavior to avoid meeting and solving a present situation. He goes backward in the hope that what worked before will work now. For example, a ten-year old child when frustrated, may take up thumb-sucking, and baby-talk, reactions he has long since outgrown. Often in frustrating situations, adults revert to childish behavior. A person who throws a temper tantrum is using behavior that once worked in handling troublesome parents. Sometimes, when adults are unable to face the complexities of life, they regressively adopt childlike dependence on some powerful person who substitutes for an all-wise, all-sufficient father. Some observers maintain that this happened on a national scale in Hitler's Germany. Faced with acute economic and social troubles, the German people regressed to a childish, unquestioning faith in Der Fuhrer, one who knew the answers, one who could solve their problems for them.

This tendency to surrender oneself into strong, fatherly hands is evident in times of emergency or great insecurity. This is why the leader, in emergency situations, not only can act in a more domineering, dictatorial-manner but must play the role of strength and paternity to keep the group from disintegrating. In a normal routine situation, a member of a group is not so willing to surrender his individuality, his initiative, or his fate into the hands of his leader.

Adults, when confronted with frustrations, may adopt other childish behavior. They sometimes pout. They sometimes cease thinking and

go in for broad, emotional, childish generalizations. They long to return to the "good old days." There is a certain nostalgic value in looking back and reliving the triumphs and satisfactions of the past, but a person should not habitually retreat to past behavior to satisfy present needs.

Much of the criticism about the military service has centered around its tendency to revere the traditionally successful way of doing things in the face of new and different situations. The appeal to precedent and tradition can sometimes inhibit creative, constructive thinking. We cannot always rely on past performance as a guide to future action.

REPRESSION

Most of us like to think of ourselves as honorable, moral, trustworthy people. We think of ourselves as people of good conscience. When we find that we are strongly tempted to commit some act that is neither honorable nor moral nor trustworthy, the experience is very distasteful. To think of ourselves as potential sinners hurts our self-esteem. Often, we push the whole business out of mind. We pretend the thing never happened, that the disagreeable temptation never took place. We drive it completely from our conscious minds.

We more often remember things of which we are proud than we do things of which we are ashamed. The former event we keep fresh by telling people about it. The shameful incident we let slide into oblivion by not even telling ourselves about it. Eventually it may be lost entirely to memory. When the shame and guilt are multiplied, the tendency to forget, to repress, is magnified.

Each of us is likely to have repressed needs—needs we do not know we have. These needs influence our behavior just as surely as do the recognized needs for food or success. But their influence is sometimes strange—so strange and sometimes so unsavory that many people cannot bring themselves to believe that repressed needs really exist.

Repression may give a superficial and transient satisfaction or relief, but the repressed need is likely to rise again to haunt us. Ordinarily, we should face our fears, frustrations, and conflicts realistically, admitting that they exist, and trying as well as we can to resolve them.

FIXATION

A person may react to frustration by repetitive, fixed patterns of behavior. This is fixation—a compulsive repetition of behavior that apparently doesn't get the person anywhere.

Man is given to worrying about big questions—what is life all about? What is God? What is happiness? What is success? These questions become quite personal—what is the sense to my life? Why am I not succeeding? Why am I not happy? How should I look at religion? These questions may lead to some confusion and insecurity. And so can many smaller questions that pop up in our daily lives. Why is there a depression? Why do I not get promoted? Why don't my men follow me? We need answers to these questions and often we aren't careful about getting good ones. We sometimes fixate on answers that make a little sense, give us a little peace. Then we resolutely cling to them despite changed circumstances.

Our too-simple answers can set like plaster and become resistant to all facts and arguments. We don't listen any more. We resist new ways of solving old problems. We know; reason no longer exists.

PARALYSIS

If conflict is severe, the individual may simply freeze. He is unable to do anything. The story is told about the jackass who found himself exactly half way between two piles of hay. Unable to decide which to eat, he starved to death. This sort of "paralysis" does happen in everyday life—though rarely is it connected with the choice between two equally attractive courses of action. It is likely to occur when something is attractive and repulsive at the same time.

Many cases of so-called laziness are probably explainable as paralytic reactions to conflict. The "lazy" enlisted man, if he is studied carefully, often turns out to be the man who is in conflict. He wants to achieve, but the road to achievement looks very tough and thorny. Or he may fervently desire success but at the same time feel that his chances of failure are so great that he is afraid to try. Hard work is good in that it usually leads to success. But it is bad in that it might lead to failure. In such a conflict a man is likely to just sit being

miserably unhappy and, to the ordinary observer "lazy."

This sort of conflict often has a lot to do with personal efficiency. Most men will work as long as work promises to get them somewhere. They will not work when work promises to bring failure, or only small rewards, or downright punishment.

During the war a survey of morale was run on a group of aviation students. In anonymous interviews the trainees were asked this question: "At one time or another in your life you probably had a job at which you worked with great enthusiasm and efficiency, where you felt you were working at your best. If you rate your best work efficiency at 100%, what would you say your present efficiency is?" The trainees appeared to have no difficulty in understanding the question and the interview situation was staged so that honest answers were likely. They put their present efficiency anywhere from 40% to 100% with average around 65%. This means that the average trainee was performing at what he judged to be 35% below his peak.

There was no doubt that these men were anxious to get their wings, and most of them appeared genuinely to want combat duty — to "get out where men are men." Why, then, were they not working with peak efficiency toward their goals? There were probably several factors. But in accounting for personal inefficiency in seeking a highly desired goal, a likely place to look for reasons is in the promises held out by hard work. Does it promise success and rewards? Or does it promise failure and punishment? In this case, what factors are there driving the trainee away from hard work? Intensive interviewing suggested two related negative factors: (1) the pervasive fear of failure and (2) a fear of unfair evaluation of work.

Failing flight training was a terrible thing to the average cadet. Many flight-failures were practically ready for suicide. And the possibility of failure was kept continually uppermost in the minds of the trainee-pilots. Instead of being a chance to learn, to demonstrate skill, to get on toward the goal, every flight, every hour of ground school, became a fearsome chance to flop, to fail. This pervasive fear of failure was enhanced by the students feeling that success or failure was often an accidental matter. They, rightly or wrongly, had the feeling that all a fellow had to do to wash out was to pick a bad instructor, or to come before a grouchy board or to get caught by a tricky gust of wind and ground-loop just once.

In such a situation, real efficiency is highly unlikely. Every hour of work involves high-level conflict. The man desperately wants to succeed. He desperately fears failure. If, at any moment, the possibility of failure seems equal to or greater than the possibility of success, a man just cannot get whole-heartedly involved in work. Of course, any time he tries to succeed at something he must "take the bad with the good," he must suffer some, he must run some risk of failure. If the suffering and risk seem greater than the rewards of success, however, no effort will be made. If the disagreeable aspects of work are too strong, if it looks to him as if the reward, instead of fitting the effort and performance, is a matter of luck his behavior will be continually jittery, inefficient, and full of conflict.

If the chances of success are reasonably good, it it appears that success is not accidental but fairly and inevitably dependent on high effort and good performance, personal morale will be high and work will be efficient. The hardships of work will be taken in stride.

You can put your men in a similar situation without half trying. It's relatively easy for a CPO to make his men lazy. All you have to do is to bawl out a man who is really trying to do his best or fail to notice good work when your men do it. If you are going to get your men to work, you must fix it so that hard work pays off. And you must arrange things so that doing nothing isn't safer than honest effort.

In many every-day situations, where individuals are caught in a paralytic conflict, the flow of behavior may be only momentarily interrupted. We all have fleeting moments of indecision arising out of small conflict. We generally have little trouble in "reaching a decision." What happens is that one need becomes stronger than the other and behavior — as always — follows the strongest need.

There are those of course who will continue to say that the conflict-bound individual is just lazy. And they say that so-and-so, being lazy, needs nothing so much as a good swift kick

in the stern sheets. Such a diagnosis is never adequate and such a treatment, while it may produce activity of some sort, will hardly result in enthusiastic work. Work happens when work promises rewards to the many needs of the worker. Work will not happen if it promises frustration and unpleasantness. Generally speaking, the more reward-promising the work, the more enthusiastic the worker. If the rewards outweigh the handicaps, the handicaps will be taken in stride.

MENTAL SICKNESS

Mild reactions to conflict and frustration are strictly normal phenomena. They occur every day and must be dealt with every day. Extreme behavior is classed as neurotic or psychotic (nervous or mental disorders) and should be treated by the Medical Department.

The CPO will not be called upon, of course, to diagnose or treat any extremely abnormal behavior. But he should be able to recognize abnormal behavior when it occurs in his unit. Since the abnormal is almost always merely an extreme form of the normal, the study of everyday behavior should aid in recognizing the serious departures from the everyday.

The CPO's first job with respect to abnormal behavior is to recognize it and help to see that it receives treatment by the Medical Department.

The CPO's second job is to maintain an objective attitude toward mental illness. We have seen that behavior is caused. People do what they must do in any situation. The man who vomits at the thought of actual contact with the enemy or the aviator who has dizzy spells during every flight should not be regarded as a weak or cowardly or willful slacker. To regard them in such moralistic terms is to ignore the basic scientific point of view. Men with such symptoms are sick. They behave as they do because they must behave as they do. They need treatment if they are to be restored to usefulness. Only rarely, if ever, will accusations of yellowness be effective treatment. A vigorous "bawling out" may remove a symptom but will not touch the cause of the symptom. If one symptom is cured another can be counted on to show up.

INTENSE MOTIVATION

Behavior may become quite selective and extremely vigorous, but still conform to the regular pattern of motivated behavior. We call this intense motivation. A severely injured athlete may experience little pain in striving to win the game. A Navy man may lift a heavy desk, beyond his normal lifting capacity, to rescue a buddy in a fire. A student may study 8 to 10 hours a day because of an intense need to be outstanding. There is nothing wrong with these intense needs, per se. In fact, you must stir up intense needs in many leadership situations.

However, at some critical point of intensity, varying from individual to individual and varying for each need within each person, behavior ceases to conform to the regular pattern. Nature shoots the works and gives man an emotional second wind, so he can pour more and more energy toward a concentrated goal. Other needs are neglected in the process, and the complex checks and balances of the person's normal behavior are disrupted.

The overenthusiastic athlete becomes a wild man who forgets the plays. The frightened pilot aborts the mission. An outwardly normal person goes beserk and starts shooting. In all cases, needs have become so intense they have to be satisfied regardless of the consequences. When no adjustment mechanism is possible, or when such devices fail, we move to the usually ineffective and abnormal behavior of shooting the works.

Such intense behavior can either prevent or facilitate outward action. Fear may make a person freeze or run for his life; despair may make a person lash out wildly or retreat into extreme isolation. Modern research in psychosomatic medicine has shown that the energy aroused by intense needs can be diverted into totally inappropriate channels of the internal physical organisms, thereby causing physical upsets. For example, research indicates that many of the gastro-intestinal upsets and headaches among adults are caused by emotional disturbances. Energy aroused by intense needs seeks an outlet either through outward action or inward disturbance.

THE PROCESS OF INTENSE REACTION

Sometimes a series of what appears to be minor little things can snowball and culminate in an explosion. Since few needs are normally fully satisfied, there is always a certain residue of unsatisfied needs, of unexpended energy. Over time, these residues may tag on one to the other and develop a cumulative intensity. The minor dissatisfactions of an occupation, routine, or situation carried on for some time may add on and lead to an intense reaction. The henpecked husband violently turning on his wife, the meek bankteller running off with half the bank's funds after 30 years of faithful service, the respectable businessman going off on a two-week drunk — all of them are probably working off the cumulative intensity of a series of minor frustrations. The worm that turns is the classical example of the potentially explosive reaction to a long series of relatively minor frustrations.

Let us not think that distorted, disrupted behavior is always so dramatic or obvious that it lands a person in prison or in an asylum. Unfortunately, it may take subtle corrosive forms that make it difficult for us to recognize such behavior in others, or in ourselves. Of these, the most common and dangerous is aggression or aggressive tendencies that are the byproducts of frustration.

Intense motivation is a cumulative process. A relatively minor incident may precipitate a major reaction which seems totally out of proportion. Frustrations can pile up, mobilizing more and more energy that can be triggered upon the slightest provocation. The alert supervisor who knows his subordinates, and who knows something about human nature, can be aware of cumulative stresses and try to avoid lighting the fuse of human reaction.

Intense motivation can result in good or bad behavior. Skillful training programs can make use of intense motivation constructively. The concentration aroused by an intense need can be useful in many situations.

As a rule, the energy mobilized by an intense need or complex of needs must be dissipated. It must go somewhere; it must be used up; and ordinarily it is reduced by attainment of a goal. When the goal is successfully reached, the bulk of the energy is dissipated and the whole system returns to a general balance.

Other reactions to stress situations are:

- Decreased productive efforts
- Increased resistance to assistance
- Increased hostility to the work situation

These reactions are the products of unresolved conflict and frustration. Frustration is characterized by emotional reactions. Thus, a frustrated person diverts his energies from his work goals to the adjustment mechanisms we have described.

MANAGEMENT OF CONFLICT AND FRUSTRATION

A person's major interests, attitudes, and values cannot long be frustrated. Obviously, this involves knowing something about the major interests, attitudes, and values of your people. At the very minimum, there must be an acceptance of the wide range of points of view that are represented in any group of people. The person with strong esthetic values or strong religious values should not be held up to ridicule. Rubbing a person's attitudes, values, and interests the wrong way can cause frustration and lead to disruptive behavior.

You should know the symptoms of intense motivation and especially, the adjustment mechanisms. All of us make use of the adjustment devices. The problem is to determine at what point they begin to dominate and distort behavior, and this varies from individual to individual. In obviously distorted behavior, there is little you can do. Talking to a man who is selectively distorting his environment will accomplish little for he will hear what he wants to hear, believe what he wants to believe. All you, as a supervisor can do, is to prevent such situations from arising in yourself, and try to prevent them in your subordinates.

POSITIVE APPROACHES BY THE LEADER

To understand behavior, to control it, we must get beyond its symptoms and deal with the factors of human nature that produce the symptoms. The doctor who treats the fever and ignores the virus, who cures the cough while the lungs disintegrate, will soon find himself without many patients. And the leader,

who treats the symptoms of conflict and frustration while remaining insensitive to their causes, will hardly achieve the utmost as a leader. He punishes "laziness" and expects it to disappear. He calls aggressive behavior "meanness" and deals with it as if the aggressive person deliberately intends to be mean. He diagnoses regression as stupidity, fixation as "stubborness," escape as a "yellow streak." He attacks these symptoms and sometimes he succeeds in making them disappear—temporarily. Sometimes his attack on the symptoms will seriously aggravate the problem behind the symptoms. "Common sense" diagnosis and treatment of people's behavior is not all it purports to be.

CHANNELING EFFORTS TOWARD PRODUCTIVITY

When a man is confronted with a frustrating situation, he inevitably spends a part of his work time thinking about it. This, in turn, reduces his capacity to concentrate on his work, and ultimately lowers the quality of his performance. Also, a man's inability to resolve his problem or problems may make him chronically irritable with the people in his working group and thereby create additional long-term interpersonal problems.

When disrupting influences extend to the work environment, your remedial action is required, not so much for humanitarian reasons—although these are important—as for maintaining the performance potential of your unit.

It is wise to regard any complaint or gripe as an indication of trouble and also to look hard and long at the gripe itself to discern if it actually reveals the true picture. Often, it is helpful to look for groups of men who are complaining. If the gripe is confined to one person, it may be indicative of a personal but undisclosed problem. On the other hand, if a number of men are griping, the chances are great that a real problem exists in the work environment.

NOW-IT SEEMS TO ME-
IT STINKS AND I THINK WE SHOULD — —
HOW CAN ANYONE EXPECT MEN TO etc.
AW- THAT LOUSY @#!*&@
SYSTEM'S ALL WRONG THEY OUGHTA- etc. etc.
-THAT'S NOT THE HALF OF IT-

191.54

Another clue to disruptive influences is a sudden and unexplained drop in performance. This is a signal to the leader to start finding the reasons behind the sudden decreases in performance. You often must use great tact to discover the underlying problem.

MAINTAINING OPEN COMMUNICATIONS

To analyze the situation, you must keep all lines of communications open. Your men must feel free to discuss with you their problems and gripes, without fear of punitive action. You are then in a better position to prevent disruptive events rather than to repair the damage caused by a problem that grew to large proportions.

In a complex life in a complex culture, people are certain to encounter frustrations. An understanding of the causes and results of frustration can take you a long way toward understanding human behavior.

A person's desires may be thwarted by impersonal barriers, by people, by rules of our society, and those who enforce them, by his own conflicting motives, and by his own codes and values.

When a person is frustrated, the most natural response is to attack whatever it is that is thwarting him. Such a direct response is often found in children but in adults, the attack is often more indirect and varied. Direct aggression persists as a response to frustration but often aggression is vented against an object or person that has little or nothing to do with the thwarting. Instead of direct or indirect aggression the person may regress, adopting behavior patterns that used to be adequate, may slip into apathy, may fixate on one response, may escape either physically or mentally from the frustrating situation, or may repress the frustration, getting it out of consciousness without getting it out of behavior.

It's important to recognize the various adjustment mechanisms that result from life's barriers and roadblocks to our needs and desires. We must find constructive ways to deal with our own and our people's frustrations and conflicts. Your positive courses of action can increase your leadership effectiveness and help you to maintain a smoothly functioning unit, relatively free of disruptive influences.

CHAPTER 7

PERSON TO PERSON COMMUNICATION

When old friends talk to each other, they usually communicate easily and naturally. They may use only incomplete sentences or gestures. Sometimes a single word or a raised eyebrow conveys all the meaning necessary. They are able to make themselves understood because they communicate in an atmosphere of mutual trust; they are receptive to each other's thoughts and opinions.

We take for granted our ability to communicate with others, for speaking and conversing are integral parts of our lives. Yet communicating in the work situation is a real challenge to you as a supervisor. When you give a simple order to a subordinate or listen to a suggestion from a subordinate, you face communication barriers that rarely exist between old friends.

Although the obvious tools of communication are words (written and spoken) and pictures (TV, maps, drawings), this chapter deals mainly with the verbal and non-verbal communication process between two people rather than with English rhetoric or grammar. For help in the English grammar aspect of communication, you may wish to enroll in a USAFI course.

The purpose of this chapter is to analyze the communication process, its cardinal elements, and the significant relationships between them. We shall look at the intangible barriers to communication. We shall discuss the listening process and how you may increase your listening efficiency. An understanding of the communication process between two people can help you to know your people and to lead a successful team.

WHAT IS EFFECTIVE PERSON TO PERSON COMMUNICATION?

Webster's Dictionary defines communication as an act or instance of transmitting. However, effective communication is more than transmitting a message. Effective communication occurs when the receiver accurately understands the message.

The effective person to person communication process has three steps:

- The sender transmits a message
- The listener decodes the message
- The sender makes sure the receiver correctly understands the message

THE SENDER TRANSMITS A MESSAGE

To transmit a message, you select symbols or words that convey your intended message to the receiver. At its basic level, communication is achieved through the use of simple oral and visual codes. For example, the letters of our alphabet, when arranged into words, constitute a basic code. Your ideas are communicated only when the words are combined in meaningful wholes, sentences, and speeches. Each part of this code is vital to effective communication. You must select your words carefully to accurately convey messages which your listeners understand.

Facial expressions, hand gestures, and body motions form other communication signals. These non-verbal communication signals often convey more information than the verbal codes. With these non-verbal signals we consciously or unconsciously reveal our emotions, feelings, and attitudes.

Sometimes miscues result if the sender fails to realize the non-verbal signals he sends. What he means to say may be different from what the other person thinks he hears. Language experts maintain that at least six messages are present in the person to person communication process:

- What you MEAN to say
- What you ACTUALLY say
- What the other person HEARS
- What the other person THINKS he hears
- What the other person SAYS
- What you THINK the other person says

You can improve the accuracy of your transmission if you recognize that six different messages are involved.

THE LISTENER DECODES THE MESSAGE

The effective communicator always remembers a basic rule: communication succeeds only in relation to the reaction of the receiver. Communication takes place when the listener reacts with understanding and changes his behavior accordingly.

The listener decodes the message from his frame of reference, likes and dislikes, and his particular needs. You can help him accurately translate your message if you assess his background, experience, and education before you aim your message. You then increase your chances of communicating with words and feelings that have meaning to your receiver.

THE SENDER MAKES SURE THE RECEIVER CORRECTLY UNDERSTANDS THE MESSAGE

You can determine if your listener accurately understands your message from the information he relays back to you. This feedback of information takes many forms. A person may state, "As I understand you, you want me to. . . . " or it may be agreement or disagreement with what you say. Wandering glances of the person with whom you are talking may express impatience or boredom. An affirmative or negative nod of the head provides meaningful feedback. You learn much about your communications by observing the reactions of your receivers.

Your challenge is to be sufficiently perceptive to detect this feedback. You can then ask yourself:

- Am I accurately sending my intended message?
- If not, how can I adjust my transmission to obtain the desired results?

COMMUNICATIONS INFLUENCE INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS

The signals, such as words, feelings, or gestures that we send another person help shape, change, or terminate our relationship with that person. And the signals he sends back likewise influence our liking or disliking, cooperation or noncompliance, trust or suspicion for him.

We often try to change another person's behavior by the message we send. We attempt to change another's behavior in terms of our own needs, feelings, values, and perceptions. For example, you instruct, train, and counsel your people. You evaluate situations, furnish information about a new piece of equipment, tell your people about a new regulation. In each of these activities, you seek to meet an objective such as getting the job done or training your people. Your communications are goal-directed to change a subordinate's behavior in ways you deem acceptable.

A receiver's behavior is similarly goal-directed. When he sends a message back to you, he also communicates from his own feelings, needs, values, and frame of reference. His response is also goal-directed to change your feelings, ideas, and perceptions. For example,

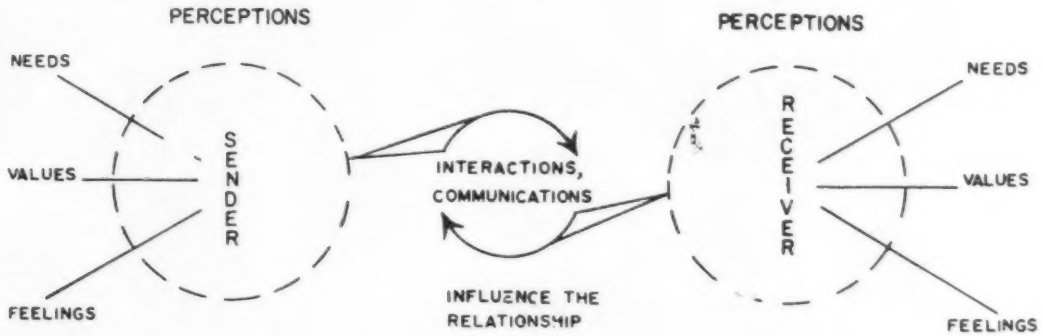

Figure 7-1. 191.55

A sends a message to B. B's reaction may be verbal or nonverbal — words, a facial expression, or even silence. The roles are now reversed. Both A and B try to satisfy their particular needs in the situation. Figure 7-1 depicts this interpersonal communication process.

The things we learn from our communications influence our interpersonal relationships. For example, subordinates who understand and willingly accept your message are likely to give you their cooperation. You build a bridge of mutual awareness and understanding when you encourage your subordinates to ask questions or make suggestions. Thus, both you and your people gather information about each other that may be mutually beneficial.

WHAT'S IN THE MESSAGE?

"You're a fine mechanic."

It's a compliment, easy for anyone to understand. Unless it is said in a different way — sarcastically, for example. The meaning is now reversed, from compliment to insult.

Some language experts suggest the following proportions of signals in a message: words alone, 7 percent; tone of voice and inflection, 38 percent; facial expressions, posture, and body gestures, 55 percent. These verbal and nonverbal signals make up the message.

WORDS

> No one means all he says, and yet very few say all they mean, for words are slippery and thought is vicious.
>
> — Henry Adams

Many people believe that words transport meanings from speaker to listener in the same way that a truck carries brick from one location to another. But words never carry precisely the same meaning from the mind of the sender to that of the receiver. The receiver's response is determined by his past experiences with the words and the things to which they refer. These experiences give the words their meaning. For example, suppose I tell you about my pet German Shepherd. If it happens that you had a German Shepherd that was a loyal and beloved pet in your household for many years, your reaction will likely be positive. You will probably agree with me that German Shepherds make fine, trustworthy pets. But if you were bitten by a neighbor's German Shepherd when you played with it as a child, your reaction may be negative. You might tell me that German Shepherds have nasty tempers and that they cannot be trusted. You react to my words in terms of your experiences.

Words are simply representations. They represent, or correspond to, anything that exists, that is experienced, or that people talk about. At best, language serves as a map. Just as a useful map accurately represents some specified territory, language should correspond to the objects or concepts that it represents. Like a map that contains errors, a statement that contains inaccuracies implies a relationship that does not exist. For example, while Hitler's armies were mobilizing for invasion in 1938, he said, "I desire no more land in Europe." Nothing in the nature of language prevents words from being used in any way the speaker wishes.

Although it is obvious that words and reality can be different, people sometimes fail to make the distinction. A man may, for example, lose his job merely because someone calls him a thief. If people act as though being called a thief and being a thief are the same, they are confusing a word with the thing it represents. On the assumption that many people "buy a label" or accept a word for a thing, manufacturers invest much money in choosing names for their products.

Concrete words refer to things that people can experience directly. Abstract words stand for ideas that cannot be directly experienced, for things that do not call forth exact mental images in the minds of the receivers. However, abstract words are necessary and useful. They serve as shorthand symbols that sum up vast areas of experience. The abstraction "Navy management", for example, cannot be directly experienced, but the term causes the receiver to think of certain Navy activities among which he discovers a relationship. For convenience, the catch-all label "Navy management" is applied to these related experiences. If communicators were forced to use only concrete words, they would soon bog down in details.

Although abstractions are convenient and useful, they can lead to misunderstanding. The danger in using them is that they will not evoke in a listener's mind the specific experiences to which the communicator is referring. The receiver has no way of knowing what experiences the communicator intends an abstraction to include. It is common practice in the Navy to use such abstract terms as "proper measures"

and "corrective action." These terms alone fail to convey the communicator's intent. When you use abstractions, they should be linked with specific experiences through examples and illustrations. As a general rule, try to use concrete words instead of abstract words. You thereby increase the accuracy of the image in the minds of your listeners.

FEELINGS AND ATTITUDES

Communication is a people process as well as a language process. You doubtless have heard, may have said it yourself, "It isn't so much what he said as the way he said it that made me angry."

As we briefly stated previously, feelings and attitudes are integral parts of the messages we send. Yet we may concentrate on the message's verbal transmission and neglect the nonverbal signals. If we stop and think about the nonverbal contents, we realize that our inner feelings and attitudes give an extra dimension to our communications. The feelings of friendliness, liking, sadness, or anger give life and meaning to words.

The feelings and emotions you send help project your intent. They provide clues to the receiver about your attitudes toward him. Clear, concrete words forcefully expressed may leave no doubt in the receiver's mind about your intent but if your words are ambiguous, he often must rely on the nonverbal signals to grasp your true meaning.

Words and the feelings you project determine the message the listener receives. You may make a simple statement to a subordinate, such as "Take care of this job immediately." How you say these words conveys different messages. For example, if your tone of voice expresses anxiety, he may decode the message, "Get this done right away because the boss is on my neck;" if your voice sounds critical, he may translate "You've been loafing, so get to work;" if your voice is pleasant, he may interpret "I know you're busy but give this job priority." The listener who has his mind's radar working receives both the message's verbal and nonverbal transmissions.

"NOISE" OR THINGS THAT INTERFERE WITH TRANSMISSION

"Noise" in the communication process is a barrier that prevents B from receiving the message from A. This "noise" may be compared to the static on a telephone line that makes it hard for B to receive A's message.

"Noise" takes different forms. It may be noise in the physical environment or it may be B's boredom, or lack of interest in what A is saying. B's fear of A may block the communication channel between them. Words themselves may obstruct communications as words mean different things to different people. Let's listen in on a conversation between a supervisor and a subordinate.

0800 Supervisor: "Get that report out as soon as you can."

(Three hours pass and the supervisor is furious.)

1100 Subordinate: "I thought you could see I was working on another rush job and had to finish that first."

To the supervisor, the words "as soon as you can" meant "immediately." To the subordinate the instructions meant "as soon as possible."

Too much emotion may obscure the message's meaning. If a supervisor corrects a subordinate in an overly critical, emotional manner, the subordinate's attention is riveted more on the emotion expressed than the message's verbal contents. For example, suppose a supervisor angrily rebukes a worker "You've done this work all wrong as you always do. You obviously don't have the ability or intelligence to do any job above the idiot's level. Now, I'll go over it once more. . . " The subordinate's emotions that are aroused by this criticism may impair his ability to concentrate on the instructions. As Emerson said, "What you are. . . . thunders so that I cannot hear what you say to the contrary."

HOW PEOPLE COMMUNICATE

An important aspect of the people to people communication process is its direction — its one-wayness or two-wayness. Essentially the problem is to clarify the differences between the two situations: (1) one person, A, talking to another, B, without return talk from B to A; versus (2) conversation from A to B with return converstation from B to A. To compare the two situations, following is an experiment that you and your friends may wish to try.

Look at figure 7-2 containing the five rectangles. Without showing the drawing to your friends,

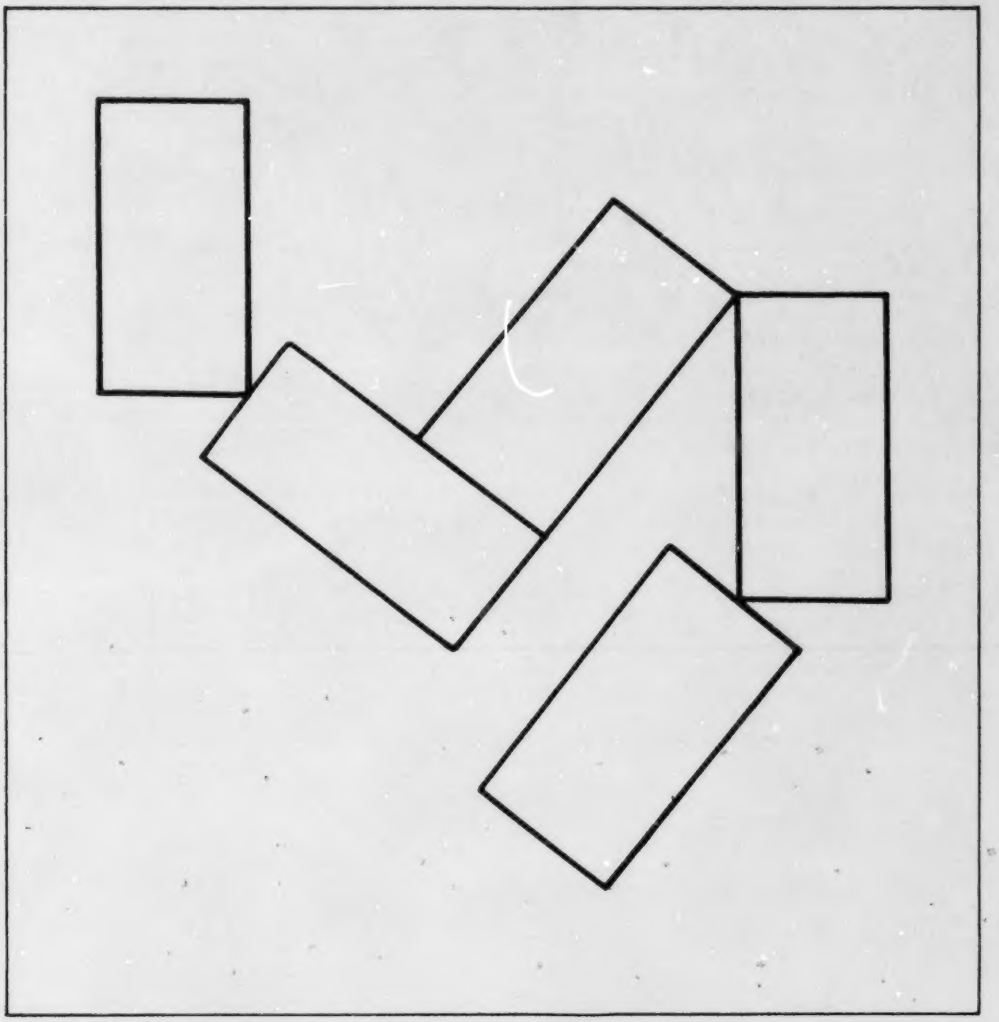

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Figure 7-2.

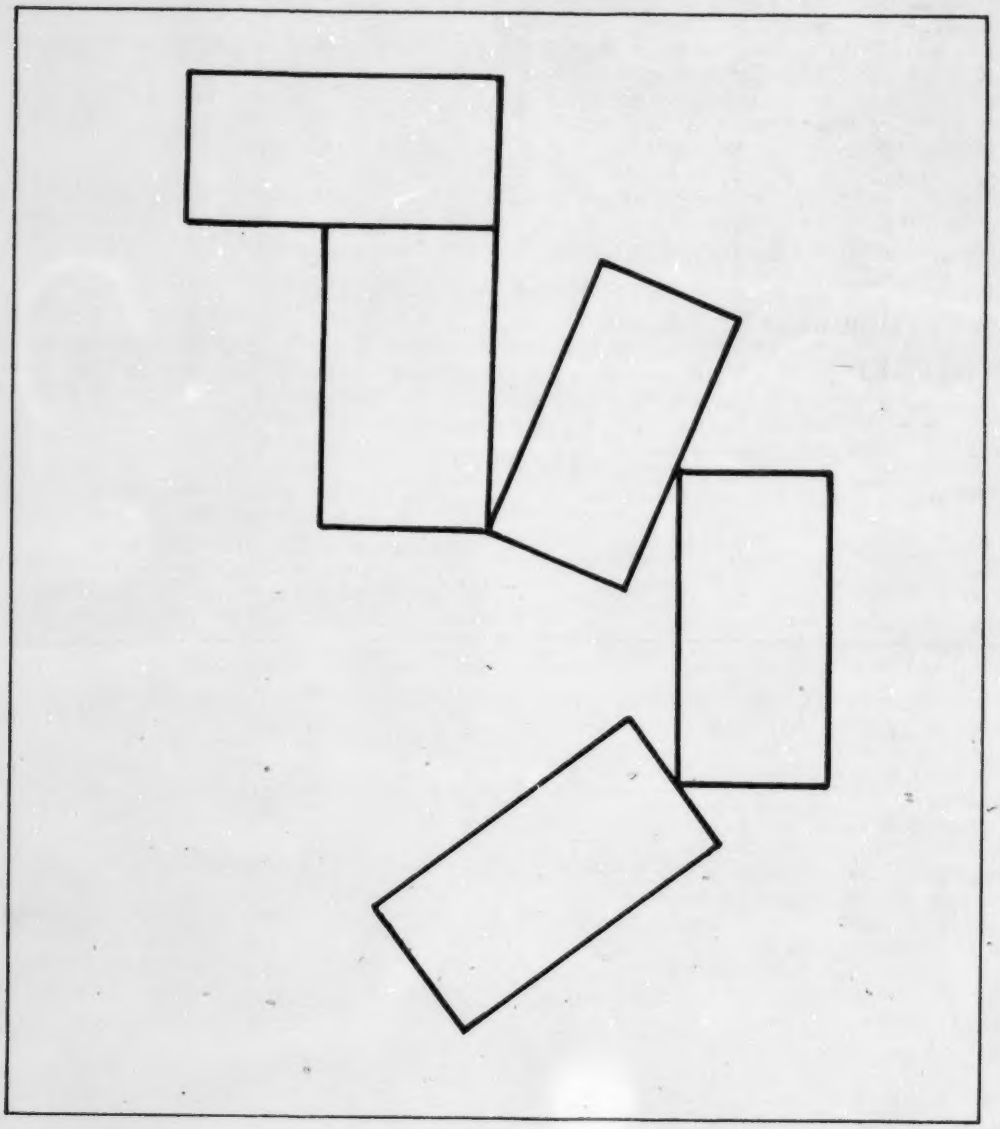

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Figure 7-3.

explain to them that you will attempt to communicate in words only what is on the sheet of paper so that they can reproduce it on a piece of scratch paper. In this phase of the experiment you should have no eye contact with your audience and they are not allowed to ask you any questions. You either turn your back on your friends or stand behind something that obstructs their view. Ask your friends to reproduce as accurate a picture of what you describe to them as possible. Make a note of the time it takes for you to convey the message. This will usually run about three or four minutes.

In the second phase of the experiment, look at figure 7-3. This exercise is essentially the same as the first one except for one important difference. This time you face your friends and you tell them they may interrupt and ask any questions, to clarify, etc. Again, be sure to time it. This phase usually runs about three or four times as long as the first phase.

After each phase, let your friends check their drawings with the test pictures. Thus you can check the accuracy of your communications.

Several findings usually emerge from this experiment: (1) One-way communication is faster than two-way. (2) Two-way communication is usually more accurate. (3) The sender may find himself feeling psychologically under attack in the two-way system, because his receivers pick up his mistakes and oversights and let him know about them. The receivers may even make snide remarks about the sender's intelligence and skill and, if the receivers are trying hard and taking the task seriously, they may actually become angry at the sender, and he at them. (4) The two-way method may appear to be noisy and disorderly; aside from being distracted by others' questions and comments, the participants usually feel less frustrated because they may respond to the sender and can check the accuracy of their drawings as they perform the exercise.

Most people are aware of many differences between one-way and two-way communication. If a person gets a chance to ask for clarifying information, then he knows with greater certainty what he should do. If he cannot relay back to the sender his questions and uncertainties, he is likely to feel frustrated and apprehensive. He is not sure about what he is unsure about. Added to his uncertainty is his expectation of blame and censure if he elects the wrong course of action.

USE OF THE ONE-WAY METHOD OF COMMUNICATION

The one-way method of communication may appear preferable if

- speed is paramount
- orderliness is important

If you elect one-way communication, you must spend a great amount of time in planning what you will say because you have no feedback of information to correct any misunderstanding.

By one-way communication, you protect your position of power by avoiding recognition of your mistakes or lack of knowledge. Of course, your subordinates may criticize you in private but in one-way communication, at least you do not have to listen to them.

The person who uses one-way communication may see his responsibility only to send the message and that of the listener to receive it. Thus, he can assign blame to the listener if he fails to understand. He can say, "I gave you your instructions but you weren't sharp enough to grasp them."

One-way communication may result in sending words in the air—talk, but not communication. In this sense, one-way communication may not be communication at all. Words result in communication only when they reach the understanding processes of the receiver.

The communicator is largely responsible for the success of his communication. He not only has a responsibility to send the message but he has a continuing responsibility to make sure his message reaches its target. To make sure, he needs confirming feedback—feedback that increases his chances of accurately hitting the target.

USE OF THE TWO-WAY METHOD OF COMMUNICATION

From the preceding discussion of one-way communication we also learned many features of two-way communication. To briefly summarize, the person who uses two-way communications not only transmits his message but he receives feedback that he uses to modify and correct his transmission.

Unlike the sender of a one-way communication, he accepts risks to his position of power. His position may be questioned, his lack of knowledge may be discovered, his own inadequacies cannot go undetected.

Less planning is required for the two-way communicator. He knows that the feedback he receives will give him opportunities for him to correct himself. However, he needs to listen and to understand the feedback he receives.

The two-way communicator should accept the responsibility for making sure that communication, not talk only, takes place. He realizes that both he and the receiver have responsibilities to achieve mutual understanding. Thus, the emphasis shifts from blaming the subordinate if he does not understand to a helping relationship in which both persons work together to eliminate foggy areas of understanding.

The advantages of two-way communication over one-way communication are:

- Greater accuracy
- Open communication channels that build mutual understanding
- Recognition of a person's need to know what is expected of him

BARRIERS TO TWO-WAY COMMUNICATION

To practice two-way communication, your people must feel free to discuss matters with you. Yet often people are reluctant to discuss problems of difficult situations with their superior. As they are often afraid of incurring their superior's displeasure, they may elect to remain silent. Some barriers that inhibit a worker from conversing freely with his superior are fear of displaying ignorance, fear of disapproval, fear of losing status, and fear of another's tendency to judge. (See fig. 7-4.)

FEAR OF DISPLAYING IGNORANCE

If I come in and ask you for clarification of what you told me to do, you might realize I don't know all the things you thought I knew. Instead of thinking of me as a competent mechanic you might now consider me as someone who doesn't have all the facts. You may also doubt my abilities to perform future tasks. My status as a person of ability is jeopardized. Maybe I'd better remain silent and perhaps you'll never discover my lack of knowledge.

Figure 7-4. 191.58

FEAR OF DISAPPROVAL

If I admit my ignorance, I might also incur your disapproval. You might become angry. Your displeasure might be directed at me personally if I tell you I don't have the parts to repair the machine. Better not to tell you anything. After all, no one likes to get bad news. No news is good news, they say.

FEAR OF LOSING STATUS

If I tell you my problem and admit my ignorance, you might lose faith in me and give my job to someone else. My fellow workers would not respect me. They'd think I couldn't "cut the mustard." Too risky to bring the matter up. After all, I have to work with these people.

FEAR OF ANOTHER'S
TENDENCY TO JUDGE

My superior might think I'm stupid for not coping with this problem. He might think I don't have the ability to handle this problem by myself. He could use this against me on my next appraisal. Maybe, I'd better not say anything.

OVERCOMING BARRIERS
TO TWO-WAY COMMUNICATION

It's a simple matter for any superior to say to his people "Come in my office, and let's talk it over" but it's another matter for subordinates to express to him their thoughts and feelings openly and honestly. Many will clam up and either (1) let the superior do all the talking or (2) give him the answers they think he wants to hear. Often the superior does not receive straight-forward feedback—feedback that he needs to accurately appraise a situation, or to handle a personnel matter.

To gain valid feedback, the superior must work to dispel those fears that impede open communication between two or more people. Being in a position of power, a leader must work doubly hard to breakdown such fears. He must, not only by words but just as important, by his actions, win their confidence, and in turn, gain their support. To accomplish this, an effective leader

- Builds a supportive relationship with his people
- Builds an atmosphere of mutual trust and confidence
- Strives to understand the other person's needs and point of view.

BUILD A SUPPORTIVE RELATIONSHIP
WITH YOUR PEOPLE

To encourage two-way communication, a subordinate needs to view his superior as one who helps and supports him. With his boss's help and support, a subordinate's fears of dire consequences diminish and his expectations of positive results increase. He has increased confidence in his superior. Such a working relationship sets the stage for open, honest communications between them.

A leader can do many things to build a supportive relationship. Often it is not only what he does, but the way he does it. It is his approach to working with people—the personal qualities he projects—that wins their confidence and good will.

A helpful person focuses on another's strengths rather than on his weaknesses, on his abilities rather than on his inabilities. Everybody has problems and everybody is usually short-suited in some quality or ability. The thing to do is not to wail about them but to do something positive to help solve and overcome them. Practice of this sort goes beyond the stark, necessary demands of business. It is a willingness to go more than halfway in friendly overtures.

Criticism should begin with praise and honest appreciation of what a person does well, and then go on to point out how this other thing can be done better. This mode of criticising will appeal to the worker because it shows an honest desire to be helpful. It recognizes the truth that we often learn by making mistakes.

Learning to look for the good in people is a satisfying way of life. If we complain often about our people or our poor lot in life, people are likely to think the trouble lies with us.

Courtesy and tact are essential ingredients of a helping relationship. To refuse a request gracefully, to show respect for what others revere, to treat even bores with consideration, to be eager to do a favor, to be calm under provocation and affable under pressure: these are signs of courtesy.

No doubt you can think of many more things that help build a supportive relationship. Simply stated, the art of building a supportive and helpful relationship lies in applying fundamental ideas of kindliness and in seeking mutual understanding. A supportive relationship prompts us to allow everyone the right to exist in accordance with his individual character.

BUILD AN ATMOSPHERE OF MUTUAL
TRUST AND CONFIDENCE

In an atmosphere of mutual trust and confidence, a person need not fear reprisal for saying what's on his mind. He is free to express his true feelings and thoughts. He knows that his thoughts will be listened to and appraised fairly.

To build trust and confidence, sincerity is important. It is not necessary that we should agree with people on every detail, nor that either party should admit that the other is

infallible in wisdom or justice, but each should be sure of the other's sincerity so they both feel free to work out the problem for the good of both.

Look favorably on the motives of your people. A most unhappy person is one who goes through life suspecting everyone with whom he comes in contact of trying to do him some ill turn. Friendships do not grow out of suspicion, nor is loyalty in a working situation built upon distrust.

Your everyday activities must leave no doubt in the minds of your people that you are striving for their welfare and the success of the unit. In many small ways, you can indicate your sincere interest in them.

TRY TO UNDERSTAND THE OTHER PERSON'S NEEDS AND POINT OF VIEW

Before we can understand another person's needs and point of view, we must admit two truths:

- We are all different, and often we are not aware in what respect or to what degree
- We are all acting and reacting to a different environment

When we realize these truths, we are inclined to study people and to better understand them. We encourage them to talk about themselves and their interests. A leader thus learns what makes his people happy or unhappy in their work or what corrective action he should take. As he looks at the situation from the other's viewpoint, he perceives the things that need to be changed, corrected, or ended.

Those who go in for mottoes might add this one: "Every human act can be understood if we know all the pertinent facts." When we see a person whom we know well acting in an unusual manner, we may be shocked or confused. By showing a sympathetic interest, by demonstrating our desire to understand, and by taking all the appropriate steps to find the cause, we may discover what is wrong with the person — or with our own interpretation of his actions.

A supportive climate, an atmosphere of mutual trust and confidence, and an understanding of your subordinates' needs all contribute to two-way communication in your work situation. If these conditions prevail, your communications with your people will serve not to dominate but to help, not to strike fear but to enlist their goodwill.

GIVING FEEDBACK

In any working day, you provide feedback to your people. You tell them how they're doing, you correct their mistakes, you give guidance. Let us examine some basic considerations in giving feedback.

FEEDBACK SHOULD HELP THE RECEIVER

The most important criterion that feedback must meet is that it be helpful to the receiver. The sender of the message should ask himself beforehand, "Do I really feel that what I am about to say is likely to be helpful to the other person?" I need to examine my own motivation and be sure that I am not about to unload a burden of hostility for my own personal benefit, regardless of the expected effect on the receiver. Otherwise, I may convince myself that my only obligation is to be open and honest — that the name of the game is candor — and that so long as I completely "level," I have fulfilled the only necessary obligation.

THE RECEIVER MUST UNDERSTAND WHAT I AM SAYING

Feedback should be specific rather than general. My receiver will better understand what I am talking about if I cite specific examples of his behavior rather than if I speak in generalizations about "what he is like." For example, if I tell him that I think he talks too much, or doesn't express his thoughts very clearly, this is less helpful to him than if I cite a particular situation, tied to time and place, where I thought he exhibited this behavior. To be told that one is "dominating" will probably not be as useful as to be told that "yesterday when we were deciding the issue you did not listen to what others said and people felt forced to accept your arguments or face attack from you." At least I will have opened up an area that we can explore further for him to gain a clearer idea of some specific things he might think about doing differently in the future. The key point is, don't generalize what kind of person he is. Give examples.

When possible, use recent examples of behavior. To understand what was happening in

the situation, a person must recall clearly the situation. What happened two minutes ago is more vividly recalled than what happened an hour ago, which in turn is more easily remembered than what happened yesterday, last week, or last year.

THE RECEIVER MUST BE WILLING AND ABLE TO ACCEPT MY MESSAGE

Most people find it difficult to accept negative feedback. Few people can receive criticism with an open, objective frame of mind.

A foundation of mutual trust benefits both the receiver and me. For him to accept critical feedback from me, he must be somewhat convinced that my motivations aren't entirely self-serving. I can be trusted to be saying what I am saying as I sincerely believe it is to his benefit. I am practically powerless to gain his voluntary acceptance if he deeply distrusts me.

How I address him is important. If my voice, facial expression, and choice of words communicate "I value you and I want to help you" he is more likely to accept the message with an open mind than if I rattle off a list of observations about his behavior, perhaps without even looking directly at him.

A person will more likely accept negative feedback if I am descriptive in what I say to him. I describe a situation as I saw it and tell him about the effect it had on me as opposed to judging the goodness or badness, rightness or wrongness, of what he did. I tell him, for example, "This may not be your problem; it may be mine. However, I want you to know that when you act toward me the way you do sometimes (describe a situation, time, and place) you make it difficult for me to (think straight, keep from getting mad, keep my mind on what we are talking about, keep from going to sleep, or whatever fits the situation)." He is more likely to accept this message with an open frame of mind than if I tell him, "I think it is just terrible when you act toward people that way, I think you ought not to be that way, that's a completely senseless way to act, why don't you grow up,. . . "

Before giving a person negative feedback, I ought to ask myself whether now is a good time to do it—whether he appears mentally and emotionally ready to receive it. If he seems angry, confused, upset, distraught, or defensive, the answer is probably no. I ought not to load any more on him right now.

Feedback from one person to another is sometimes accepted as valid when in fact it ought not to be. If I tell you there is a particular thing you do that I find most upsetting, it may be the problem isn't yours at all, but rather that it's mine. If feasible, check with others on the validity of your observation.

When you give feedback, you may think you haven't done a man justice unless you tell him everything about him that bothers you. Giving complete negative feedback is often undesirable. A person can rarely understand, accept, and consider doing something about several of his characteristics at once. If you give him too much to work on, he may spread his attention too thin. The more you criticize him, the more threatening the experience to him is likely to be. He then finds it difficult to accept any comment with an open mind.

THE RECEIVER MUST BE ABLE TO DO SOMETHING ABOUT THE MESSAGE

Suppose I feel that a petty officer does not express his ideas as forcefully and persuasively as he ought to his people. Before saying anything to him, I should consider what specifically is blocking his delivery. If I think, for example, that he doesn't organize his thoughts very well, this is something he could possibly correct. I probably should talk to him about it, especially if I can give him specific instances. Or suppose I feel that he expresses his ideas forcefully, but that as soon as he receives any static from anyone about them, he withdraws, either from indifference or from lack of confidence in his ideas. I might decide to tell him about this for I could reasonably expect that he could do something about his reaction.

To summarize, feedback should meet the following criteria to be of value to the receiver. It should be:

- Helpful to the receiver
- Given directly and based on a foundation of trust between the giver and receiver
- Given at a time when the receiver appears ready to accept it
- Kept within limits for the receiver should not be told more than he can handle at any one time

To give positive, helpful feedback is an important leadership skill. The feedback that you give your people affects both their attitudes toward

you and their relationships with you. Your positive feedback creates cooperative attitudes, improves interpersonal relationships, and establishes a more productive work atmosphere.

WHAT IS LISTENING?

Hearing is not listening. A person hears, often without listening, whenever sound waves strikes his eardrums. Hearing, a physical experience, is only a step in the listening process. Comprehending and remembering are the others. Not until a person comprehends and remembers what he hears, can he be said to listen. Listening is an active process that engages a person's reasoning and thinking processes. To listen, a person must put energy and effort into the listening process. He must concentrate.

By definition, concentration is "close mental application, exclusive attention." From time to time, stories circulate about some genius who can simultaneously read a book, listen to his wife talk, hear the President speak by radio, and abstract the important ideas of each. Few people match this performance; in fact, most people must work at focusing attention on even one subject for any length of time.

The behavior of the mind can be compared to the flow of a river. A river meanders, finding and following the course of least resistance from the mountain to the sea. Every navigable river, however, has a safe channel. The captain who wants to take his ship up and down the river and into the ports on his itinerary, keeps the ship in the channel. Like a river, the human mind tends to wander, but the objective listener keeps his attention in a mental channel, the channel of concentration. Whenever a listener allows his mind to stray, he lets the current of the spoken ideas in the channel pass him by. His attention may get back into the current, but it can rarely catch up with the speaker's ideas. What can a person do to channel his attention? The answer lies in forming good listening habits.

FORMING GOOD LISTENING HABITS

Listening effectively is not a gift; it is acquired through practice and hard work. Any one who wants to become a better listener can do so by practicing the following rules at every opportunity.

Get Ready To Listen

Listening requires physical and mental preparation. The physical preparation for listening can be compared with that for catching a plane. If a man expects to be a passenger on a plane departing at 2000, he must check his baggage, find his seat, fasten his safety belt, and be awaiting takeoff before that time. The same is true of the listening situation. First, the listener must check his baggage, that is, put away newspapers, books, and other extraneous material. He should, insofar as possible, prepare to listen to the speaker by mentally "tuning out" distractors such as noise or minor physical discomforts. He should be physically relaxed but mentally alert.

Listen To Understand Ratner Than To Refute

Critical listening is a good practice, but it is not achieved by silently criticizing the speaker's thoughts before he has finished. The good listener will analyze but not mentally argue with the speaker. Unless he honestly attempts to get the speaker's message, the listener cannot be well enough informed to evaluate the ideas intelligently. The listener should listen and wait; he should try to understand first and evaluate second. Some or all ideas may deserve to be

Figure 7-5. 191.59

questioned and tested, but the testing should be done after the speaker finishes speaking. (See fig. 7-5.)

Take Responsibility For Comprehending

The successful listening-learning situation demands something of the listener as well as the speaker. A speaker frequently uses examples to support points he wishes to stress. The comprehending listener looks for similar examples within his own experience and applies the point to himself or to his job.

Control The Emotions

The listener should not permit emotional blocks to develop between himself and the speaker. How can a listener be unbiased? If, for example, he is annoyed by a speaker's manner, how can he remain objective about the speaker's ideas? By isolating the source of his annoyance — the speaker's vocabulary, dress, or personal mannerisms — and by analyzing the reasons for his negative emotional responses to them, he can often minimize their effects on him. The intelligent listener does not permit emotional blocks to prevent his understanding of a speaker's ideas. Actually, the responsive listener tries to help the speaker — rather than to react unfavorably to him. The listener can assist the speaker merely by displaying an overt interest.

Sometimes, certain words trigger certain emotions. Many terms, such as "Red," "Socialist," "automation," and "collector of internal revenue" are emotionally loaded. Everyone has experienced emotional blocks upon hearing certain words.

Be Mentally Agile

People do not think and speak at the same rates. The normal person thinks much faster than a normal speaker can possibly talk. This rate differential gives the listener's mind the time and opportunity to stray from the speaker's subject. But the listener who has disciplined his mind can use this spare time to review what the speaker has said and to predict what he will say. In doing this, he profits from two practices essential to learning: mental activity and repetition. The mentally agile listener has ample time mentally, to repeat, forecast, summarize, and paraphrase the speaker's remarks. This practice increases comprehension and aids retention.

The art of listening warrants the best efforts of those who wish to understand and use ideas verbally expressed by others. The listener cannot listen passively and expect to retain much. Although listening requires effort, it is still one of the best ways to gain knowledge and understanding. Our opportunities to listen are numerous. We shall be better listeners if we give the communicator our careful attention. We can improve our comprehension if we try to understand his point of view.

SUMMARY

The successful communicator realizes that person to person communication contains both verbal and nonverbal signals. He carefully selects his words, using concrete ones when possible. He knows he must not only transmit the message but he must make sure his listener has accurately understood his message's intent. He encourages the two-way communication process for a mutual exchange of facts, feelings, and ideas. He listens to the messages sent back by his people. He works to overcome the barriers to two-way communication by building a helpful and supportive work climate.

CHAPTER 8

THE MAN AND THE JOB

Traditionally, a manager's job has been viewed as the planning, orgainzing, directing, and controlling of operations so that the organization can accomplish its mission.

Many modern management authorities consider this concept inadequate because it fails to recognize the major role that people play in achieving organization objectives. To get the job done, managers direct the activities of people, organize activities for people, and attempt to control the activities of people. Therefore, many management authorities prefer a concept of a manager that takes into account his responsibilities to integrate the interests and needs of his people with those of the organization.

BASIC RESOURCES OF A MANAGER

The basic resources of a manager are (1) people, (2) money, (3) materials, (4) space, (5) time, and (6) functions or jobs. The effective manager integrates all six resources into a unit that successfully accomplishes its objectives. Assuming that sufficient resources are available, managing people is the central and most important managerial task. People's efforts determine to a large degree how efficiently organizational goals will be achieved. Even the best equipment or the best possible arrangement of jobs will be of little value if the enthusiasm and cooperation of people are not attained.

BENEFITS OF OBJECTIVES

Clear, specific, and relevant objectives that are understood and accepted by workers are necessary to the efficient functioning of a unit. First, objectives indicate the proper course of action a worker should take. Each person knows what is expected of him. Therefore, unnecessary or irrelevant activities can be eliminated.

Second, objectives provide the basis for cooperation and coordination in the work unit. When each worker's objectives help meet the overall work goal, greater coordination and cooperation should result.

Third, objectives establish standards for measuring accomplishments and progress. Specific goals such as quality standards, production deadlines, etc. let a man know what he is expected to accomplish and what progress he is making at all times. He also knows that he will be evaluated objectively on what he accomplishes in relation to those goals.

MATCHING THE INDIVIDUAL'S GOALS WITH ORGANIZATIONAL GOALS

On the surface, it seems that many of a manager's problems are solved if he establishes and communicates clear, specific, and relevant objectives to his people. However, behavioral scientists in the field of management have identified a major obstacle to achieving organizational goals. Their research shows that the goals and needs of people in organizations frequently differ from the goals and needs of the organization.

People bring to an organization their innate needs for survival, security, social, esteem, and growth that we described in chapter three. What a person wants from an organization are sufficient wages to provide for life's basic necessities for himself and his family; job security in continued employment; satisfying relationships with his fellow workers and superiors; recognition of his accomplishments; the esteem of the organization through his superiors; worthwhile and beneficial work; and opportunities for professional growth and development on the job.

The organization has specific objectives to accomplish that require the productive efforts of an employee. The organization needs the

employee to contribute his physical energies and intellectual efforts to accomplish its goals. In effect, the organization is trying to satisfy its needs through the person while the person is trying to satisfy his needs through association with the organization. The organization asks for a worker's abilities, energy, and commitment. In return, the worker asks the organization for satisfaction of his physiological and sociological needs while he does his job.

This becomes an exchange process whereby the worker perceives that he must receive an equal payment in need satisfaction for the efforts he contributes toward the organization goals. If he cannot satisfy his needs, he will stop contributing to the accomplishment of organization goals by either quitting the job or by withholding his energies and abilities and doing just enough to "get by."

No doubt, you have come in contact with people who are not receiving what they perceive to be equal payment from the organization in the satisfaction of their personal goals. The real problem is usually found in the work itself or the work environment. The work "isn't challenging enough" or "could be accomplished by a person with half my skills" are common complaints. In such cases, managers can take positive steps to alleviate workers' discontent by providing a work environment which

- challenges the worker to use his abilities
- recognizes the worker's accomplishments
- promotes helpful, supportive superior-subordinate relationships

MANAGEMENT BY OBJECTIVES

Management by objectives is a managerial tool that seeks to match the individual's goals with organizational goals. Its objective is two-fold: to meet organizational goals and to increase the vitality and commitment of workers to those goals. Management by objectives, properly used helps tap human potential. It helps to ensure that those involved know what is expected of them, what is to be done, and how these accomplishments are to be measured.

THE NATURE OF MANAGEMENT BY OBJECTIVES

Management by objectives is a process which seeks to integrate the needs and goals of an organization with the needs and goals of the worker. In management by objectives, the superior and subordinate jointly discuss goals, specify the subordinate's goals, and appraise the subordinate's performance in relation to those goals.

The goals serve as guides for operating the unit and evaluating the achievements of each member in the unit. Managing by objectives focuses on the results to be attained.

ESTABLISHING MANAGEMENT BY OBJECTIVES

Figure 8-1 shows the steps to establish management by objectives.

Step 1—The starting point is your accurate and up-to-date understanding of the organization's overall goals. You derive your unit's goals from the overall mission. They support the overall goal. Seeing the broad picture is like putting a jig-saw piece in place; you gain a clear perspective of your unit's relationship to the larger goal.

Step 2—The second is for you to examine your unit's mission, based on your understanding of the overall mission. The unit's mission is the reason for your group's existence and the focal point for all activity.

Questions to ask yourself as you examine your unit's mission are:

- What is the scope?
- If you accomplish the mission with the efforts of your group, what exactly would you want to happen?
- Are outside activities or departments involved in accomplishing the mission? Who must support your efforts?
- Are your people committed to accomplishing the mission? If not, how will you get their commitments?
- Do all members of your group understand the unit's mission and how it helps to meet the overall mission?
- Does each member know the part he plays in meeting the unit's mission?
- What outside activities or departments does your unit affect?

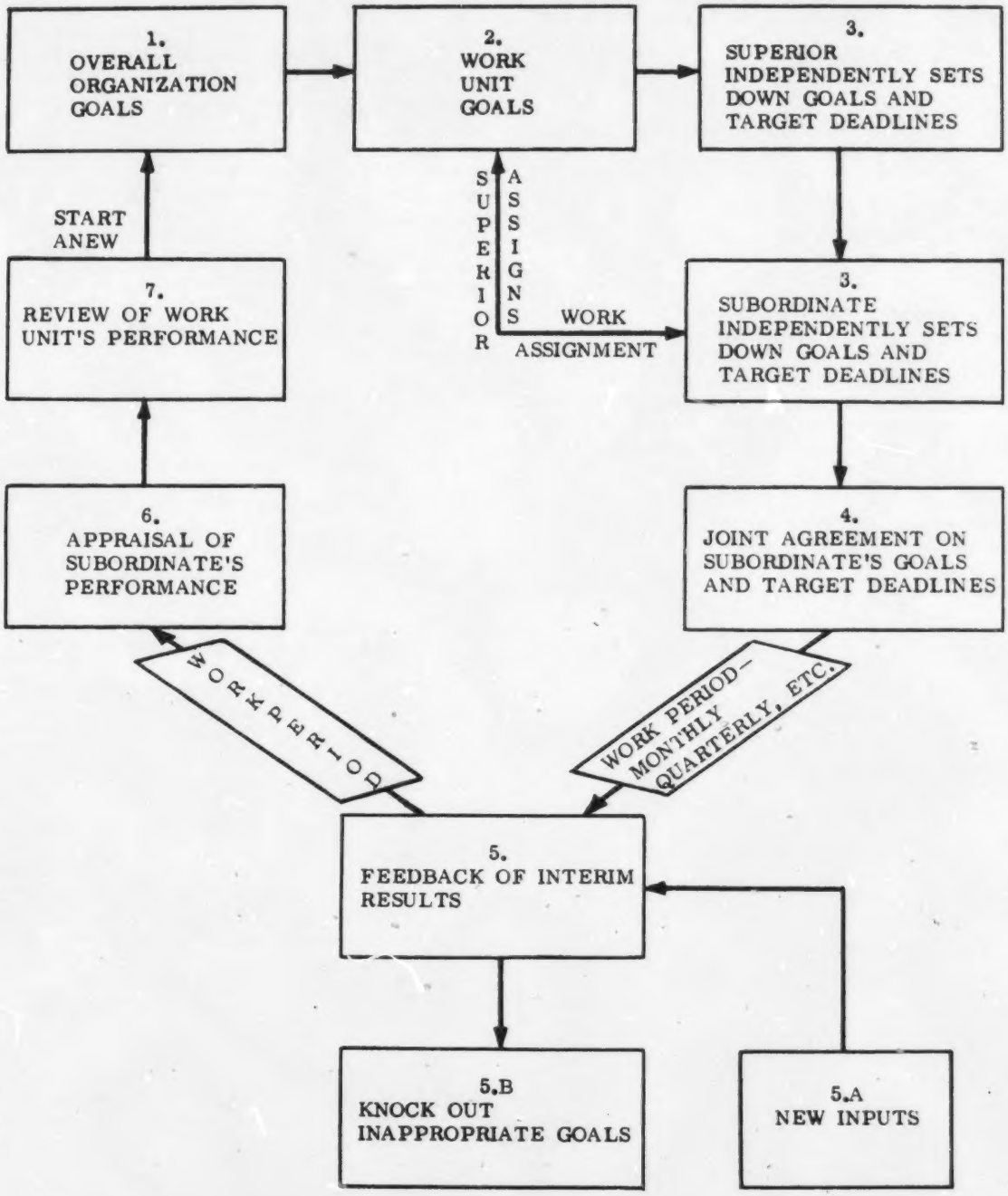


Figure 8-1. 191.60

Step 3-A — At this step, you establish specific objectives. These action steps are essential and will focus all efforts upon accomplishing the unit's mission.

Your action steps should be:

- Specific — They must describe exactly what action is to be taken.

- Measurable — The results must be measurable if you are to determine if the action step was effective.

- Time-phased — Target deadlines determine the progress of the action steps.

It is easier to apply these criteria to some objectives than to others. Some objectives are highly specifiable while others are less so. The following examples illustrate how goals should be stated:

POORLY WORDED

Reduce repair time

A BETTER STATEMENT

Reduce repair time on the unit's machines by 10% for the next six months

POORLY WORDED

Work on machine X

A BETTER STATEMENT

Complete overhaul of machine X by 1 March

POORLY WORDED

Reduce rush at end of projects

A BETTER WAY

Specify how:
Put up schedule board for all to see. Talk to group.

You can see from these examples that even when dealing with less specifiable objectives as in example 3, one can go a step further and specify how a particular objective is to be accomplished.

You should consider the following questions as you set specific objectives for your unit:

- What are the present objectives and how were they established? Are there any changes in the overall organization mission that necessitates modification or revision of present targets?

- What goals should have the highest priority? It is unlikely that I will be able to simultaneously complete each action step. What steps should be first?

- Do the action steps contribute to the unit's work mission? If not, why take the action step?

- Is each action step specific and measurable?

- Which actions are short range and which are long range?

Your next step is to take a closer look at the specific job.

- What conditions will exist when this job is being accomplished? Are there any obstacles? If so, how can I overcome or minimize them?

- What are the limits of my responsibility? Must I coordinate efforts with other work units?

- What procedures must we follow?

- How complex is this job?

- How routine is this job?

- Which subordinate has the capabilities and skills to accomplish it? Is additional training necessary? Is it within his power to meet the objective? If not, must I delegate additional authority or make adjustments within the unit? Are there external factors beyond his control such as lack of materials, waiting for higher decisions, or revised regulations? (If so, I cannot hold him solely responsible for meeting the target by a specific date.)

Step 3-B — Management by objectives emphasizes mutual goal-setting by both the superior and subordinate. The subordinate is actively involved from the beginning in determining his own goals and target deadlines. After you assign a specific responsibility to him, you should ask him to consider the job in all its aspects

and to propose his goals. He should know the overall responsibility of the unit and how his assignment helps meet that responsibility. The criteria for his goals are the same as yours for they should be:

- specific
- measurable
- time-phased

He should analyze his goals and anticipate what obstacles he may encounter in accomplishing them.

Step 4 — you and the subordinate jointly discuss the subordinate's goals. This discussion should contribute to a good working relationship with the subordinate, should motivate him to meet his goals, and to assume self-direction and self-control of his behavior. The atmosphere should be one of mutual exploration for concrete, realistic, and attainable (with some built-in challenge) goals. Emphasize the job's concrete aspects and what needs to be accomplished, rather than how it is to be done.

The final decision is your responsibility. In reaching your decision, both you and the subordinate will benefit from an exchange of ideas, suggestions, and knowledge of the job and working conditions. This exchange of viewpoints usually results in a better understanding of the job in all its aspects, the job's relation to the overall goal, and of each other.

After you make the final decision, put the goals in writing for future reference, retain a copy, and give a copy to the subordinate.

Setting goals in an atmosphere of mutual endeavor and cooperation increases the worker's motivation and level of performance. (See fig. 8-2.) As he contributes his ideas and first-hand knowledge of the job, he is more likely to support your final decision and to willingly direct his efforts to meet the goals. One of the most significant research findings in recent years is that superior results occur when the supervisor and employee together set specific and attainable goals rather than merely discuss needed improvements.

Step 5 — Feedback of interim results should be scheduled monthly or quarterly and answer the following questions:

- Is he meeting his goal?
- Have working conditions changed?

191.61

Figure 8-2.

- Are there additional requirements?
- Am I doing my part to help him reach his goal?

Flexibility is the key point. You ask your subordinate to review his progress in meeting his goal. You ask him if there are unforeseen difficulties or new developments. You mutually agree to eliminate inappropriate goals if circumstances have changed and you reach agreement on new goals, if necessary, as described in step 4. Be sure he knows the whole picture if new goals must be set.

Tell him about the things he is doing well if he rates it. Your recognition will reinforce his efforts to do the job well and will enhance his expectation of successfully reaching his goal. If he has made some mistakes, coach him on how he can correct them. Use positive feedback and constructive criticism, when possible.

If an unexpected problem occurs, you can set the stage for finding a solution. Here is how a subordinate described his superior who dealt with a problem situation constructively:

"He indicated in many ways that I was neither stupid nor to blame for the problem.
He accepted my problem as a matter of course.
He helped me to see the value of working on the problem and he encouraged me to find a satisfactory solution.
He seemed aware of some of the reasons for the problem.
He helped me to find a positive approach to the problem.
He asked me valuable questions about the nature of the problem.
He helped me to see the need for diagnosing the problem before finding a solution.
He helped me to set up criteria for a revised goal and target deadline."

Such an approach builds a worker's confidence to overcome obstacles, encourages him to improve his performance, and helps him to find a satisfactory solution for himself.

Step 6—This step takes place upon the expiration of the target deadline. Management by objectives is sometimes called appraisal by results for you appraise the subordinate's performance according to the job's concrete phases and how well he met his goals that were established in step 4. (See fig. 8-3.)

The subordinate also evaluates his performance. As he actively participated in the goal-setting process from the beginning, he knows where he stands prior to your appraisal and he can measure his performance by the progress he has made.

At this time, you can learn from the subordinate his feelings about his job, the opportunities he seeks to learn new skills, his potential for learning more responsibile jobs, etc. You can then more accurately identify his needs for growth and development with those of the organization and start to formulate new goals as described in steps 2, 3, and 4.

The appraisal step in the goal-setting process is a planning device, rather than a control device. Your role shifts from the empirical evaluator and defender of the appraisal you have given him to one who helps him improve his performance and to develop new skills. Your role shifts from judge to coach.

Figure 8-3. 191.62

Research data from hundreds of supervisor-subordinates indicate that the performance appraisal step in the goal-setting process has superior results in comparison to the formal ratings approach traditionally used by the supervisor. Research findings of supervisor-subordinate reactions are as follows:

- The goals approach built a sense of mutual endeavor, of working together to find solutions to shared problems. The ratings method resulted in a sense of isolation between them.

- Both the supervisor and subordinate expressed greater satisfaction when they worked together in pursuit of a common goal. Their mutual efforts contributed to a good interpersonal relationship. Performance appraisal under the ratings system resulted in a neutral, passive attitude, particularly by the subordinate.

• The subordinate felt a greater responsibility to change and to accept responsibility under the goals system as he had some influence over his own situation. Under the ratings system, the supervisor felt a responsibility for the subordinate to change but the subordinate felt no such commitment.

Step 7—As specific goals are met, you should take stock of how well your unit is meeting the overall organization goals. You compare the work unit goals you set in step 2 with how well they are accomplished.

THE MANAGEMENT BY OBJECTIVES (APPRAISAL BY RESULTS) APPROACH COMPARED TO THE TRAIT APPRAISAL AND CRITICAL INCIDENT APPROACHES

Other commonly used methods for appraising employees are the trait appraisal and critical incident methods. In the former, the supervisor rates an employee on certain traits as attitude, accuracy, appearance, cooperation, capacity to develop abilities, perseverance, patience, etc. In the latter, the supervisor appraises an employee on specific incidents of his behavior which depart from accepted ways of behaving, such as failure to use proper procedures or to properly carry out instructions.

When compared to the appraisal by results approach, these two methods have several disadvantages:

• The supervisor acts unilaterally since the appraisee is not given a set of standards against which he is told he will be measured

• The supervisor tends to remember recent events

• The employee does not participate until the review

• The employee is placed in a passive position and may be put on the defensive when measured against these criteria

• Past behavior is emphasized rather than planning for future goals

• Evaluations are subjective

In contrast, the advantages of the appraisal by results method are obvious:

• The appraisee participates in setting his goals.

• Specific standards are used to measure his performance.

• Appraisal is more objective as he is evaluated on the results he achieves.

• Emphasis is on his past performance and his future goals.

• Planning for his future goals takes place at various steps.

SUMMARY

Management by objectives, sometimes called appraisal by results, is a managerial tool that seeks to integrate the individual's needs on the job with the needs of the organization. In management by objectives, the manager makes certain that his unit's goals support the overall goal. He sits down with each worker and together they establish the work goals the worker should meet. This discussion should be in a spirit of cooperation and mutual exploration for concrete, realistic, and attainable (with some built-in challenge) goals. The worker is personally involved in determining his work goals and he can assume some self-direction and self-control of his behavior. He is thus able to satisfy his need to do worthwhile and beneficial work, to grow and develop professionally on the job, and to have a satisfying relationship with his superior. As a result, the worker is likely to have a greater commitment to his work goals and to do a better job.

Management by objectives lets a worker know what is expected of him and that he will be measured by the results he achieves. He knows he will be evaluated objectively. His needs to know where he stands and to be treated fairly are satisfied.

Management by objectives is an effective tool for integrating employee and work goals and improving employees' performance.

CHAPTER 9

THE LEADER AND HIS GROUP

Each of us during our lifetime belongs to many different groups — the family, church, clubs, civic organizations, and not the least important, the group in which we earn a living. These groups have a deep and lasting influence on our lives. They help form our attitudes, opinions, and basic values as well as our disciplinary and social controls. Each group is a potent force in regulating our behavior.

Man's desire to be an integral part of some social group is one of his basic urges. The most severe punishment in penal institutions is solitary confinement, away from all human relationships. A man must have more than an intellectual understanding that he is a member of a group. He must feel that he is an important, contributing member of that group.

Understanding your group's behavior often challenges your leadership skills. Although groups are always made up of individuals, you can't always understand your group by studying its individual members. Neither can you see a forest by studying single trees. Group interaction makes the group as a unit greater than the sum of its parts.

To deal with your group, you carry out task and maintenance functions. Task functions are the production and technical aspects of your job — planning the work, completing reports, checking technical data, etc. Your maintenance functions are the things you do to develop the cohesiveness of the group and the esprit de corps of your people. This chapter is about your maintenance functions for your group — the things you do to maintain the effectiveness of your unit in terms of interpersonal relationships.

To understand a working unit in the overall organization, let us look briefly at the organization from two aspects — the formal and the informal organization. The formal organization consists of the way that people and resources are officially assigned on paper to carry out a mission. It is reflected on such documents as organization charts, the chain of command, watch, quarter, and station bills. It indicates what each person officially is expected to do. But people frequently do more things, or do them differently, than is officially stated. They bring their own judgment, interpretations, needs, skills, attitudes, and common sense to bear in their work situation. The way people actually carry out work assignments is the functioning organization, sometimes called the informal organization.

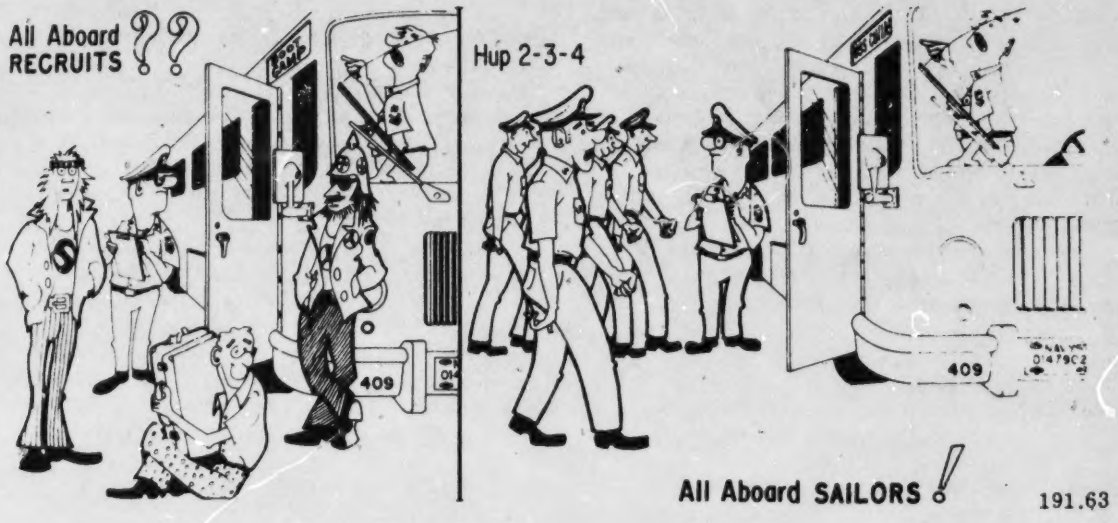
In this chapter we are concerned with the informal organization within the group, the interaction between its members, and your relationship to the group. Effective small groups are essential to any organization for their efforts determine the success of the larger organization. By understanding the workings of the small group, you can make your group a better group.

WHAT IS A GROUP?

A group exists when there is

- Interaction between two or more people
- A sense of mutual identity and awareness
- Common values and standards of behavior
- Performance toward a common objective

A hundred new recruits arrive for boot training. They are taken off the train at the same time, marched off to the station, put through an examination routine, and later, put through a training schedule. To the outside observer these men constitute a group mainly because they happen to be at the same place at the same time. However, they are better described as a bunch.



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Now look at the crew of a Destroyer Escort. Some crews may behave somewhat like a collection of men, initially, but before long, they begin to show characteristics of a group. There is tight organization, with leaders and subleaders playing their proper roles. There is systematic division of labor. The men know one another and talk about themselves as "we." They are proud of their ship and identify themselves by the name of their craft. Such a collection of men is not a bunch. Now the term group better describes them.

Both of these collections of men are groups. The raw recruits do interact with one another. They are at least aware of each other. But the "bunchiness" gives way to a group feeling only when the members identify with the group and begin to use the term "we" to refer to themselves.

If the recruits identify themselves as class 107C or as the "Boys from Barracks 64" they become more group-like, and if these men adopt the goal of having the best barracks or the best recruit company things then begin to happen. There may be spontaneous organizations and division of labor within the regular organization, and the members will cooperate with each other to advance the group's goal.

When a bunch of men are assigned to a ship, they likewise become more group-like in their behavior when they collectively evolve or accept a group goal — (the best division on the ship, for example), when they have a sense of belonging, and when they wholeheartedly accept their leaders and the official divisions of labor.

People form groups only when having a group pays them dividends. Belonging to the group must be mentally and emotionally rewarding if an individual is to join up enthusiastically and wholeheartedly as well as officially. Of course, not many people will ask themselves coldly, "What's in it for me?" before they pitch into group activity, but the outside observer can notice that individuals, just as they do not eat food unless it satisfies a need, do not really get into a group unless the group satisfies some of their needs. If being a member of the group fails to pay off mentally and emotionally, the individual may stay there and do his work, but he works and stays strictly as an individual — not as a real member of the group.

If you successfully guide and orient the group, the group itself can then do much to satisfy the basic needs of the individual members. When the members of the group can satisfy their needs in the work situation, good human relations usually exist in the organization. The unit spirit is high, good attitudes prevail, and as a result the men do their best work. In return, the men receive "satisfaction pay," which is as important to them as their money pay.

When a group fails to receive satisfaction, the results are apparent in the attitudes and effectiveness of the members. For example, unusual anxiety in a number of otherwise stable individuals in a group may become apparent; this reaction usually indicates leadership failure or a behavior problem. If the leader has a good understanding of his responsibilities and of human behavior, he can guide the individuals and the group toward the mission. But if there is a breakdown in planning, goal-setting, communication, or performance the group may bog down.

REWARDS OF GROUP MEMBERSHIP

What needs does membership in a group satisfy? If we can answer this question, we can better predict when a bunch will become a group or when a group will disintegrate into a bunch.

A Definite, Structured, Satisfying Relation With Fellow Members

By nature, man is a gregarious creature. He likes to belong and to be accepted by others. There is some basic satisfaction in human companionship. If left alone, he generally is lonely and will seek the company of others.

But sheer liking to be with other people is not enough to account for the formation of groups. It is more likely to account for bunches. Groups involve more than fulfilling purely gregarious impulses. They get themselves organized and committed to common goals. The individual will pitch into group activities if they give him a feeling of secure belonging. He needs the security of having a set relationship with his fellow members, a definite role to play, a place in society. He joins a group and contributes to its activities if these desires can be satisfied. His status may be high or low, he may be a leader or a very lowly follower, but there seems to be a great comfort in having a definite and defined place in a group—a definite role to play. If the individual cannot figure out the rules by which the group operates, if one day he is "in" with the leader and the next day, for unknown reasons, he is in the "dog house," if today he has a certain relation with his fellow workers and tomorrow he is treated differently, he suffers an insecurity that is likely to drive him from the group. He needs to see how the group operates, needs to know who is who and what is what, needs to see how he can advance in the organization. If he knows these things, his life in the group takes on a desirable stability and meaning for him. If he doesn't or can't know these things, the group is a source of frustration to him.

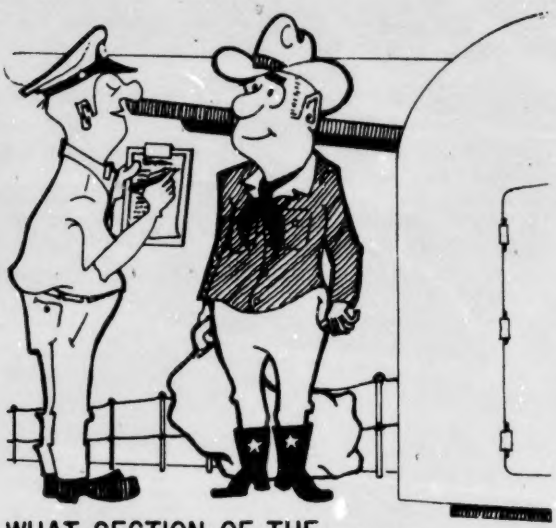
If the group rejects or thwarts the individual, there will be trouble. Conversely, the individual can reject the group by failing to carry his share of the load and by acting anti-socially. Your job is to try to prevent such conditions and to correct them if they do occur.

Status Within The Group

Not only does the individual need a structured, meaningful, and secure relation with his fellow members but he also needs to feel important, to have a good impression of himself. He needs a social status among his fellows. If a group promises him status, promises him an opportunity to be a contributing and respected member, he will likely join that group. If the group treats him as a non-essential, unimportant hanger-on, his impulse to get out will be strong.

The status of an individual in a group is actually a matter of how the individual feels about his status. We can't assume that a person's position as chairman of the entertainment committee guarantees that he feels important or that the newest and lowest member feels like a nobody. It depends on how the individual feels about his position. And what he feels depends on how he defines success. The man who regards himself as good presidential timber will not be happy if elected secretary, while the man who has great awe for other members of the group will feel successful if merely accepted as an apprentice. Success, in terms of status seeking, is defined in terms of the person's own hopes and expectations.

The rawest recruit can have status in your group without being a CPO or even a rated man. If you call him by his name, recognize that he's from "such and such" a state, take a friendly interest in him, that may be enough at the beginning to make him "feel like somebody" in the unit.



WHAT SECTION OF THE COUNTRY DID YOU VISIT KURTWITZEL?

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Status Because Of The Group

The strong and ever-present need for status comes into the picture in another way. Not only may the individual be somebody in the group, but his impression of himself may be considerably elevated simply because he is a member. If the group is well thought of in the community, if it is exclusive, if it accomplishes much, if it is looked up to by non-members, then the individual who wears the badge of membership will derive important status satisfaction. The exclusive country club does more for its members than furnish them with a place to play golf. The fraternity group does more for a man than arrange social functions. And certain honorary groups have as their sole function the building-up of the egos of their members. The individual in any group, given a decent chance, will work to make the group into something of which he can be proud.

Again we must remember a person's level of aspiration. The individual who is shooting at the social moon, may derive no satisfaction from belonging to a group lower than his aspirations. Whether a man feels pride of membership depends on the height of the star to which the man has hitched his hopes and desires.

Accomplishing An Objective Through Group Action

There is strength in numbers. A man may join with others in a group endeavor because a group is more powerful and more effective than a number of individuals working alone. When a number of individuals share a common interest or common need, the natural thing is to organize, to join forces to gratify the common need.

In general, an individual joins a group when it meets his needs for social contacts, for secure relationships with his fellow members, for status, or for a combination of these needs plus other more direct and primary needs. Whether or not an individual pitches in with any specific group depends on what that group promises. One group may promise little other than financial advantages. Another may offer only a satisfying set of social relations with people. Another may offer only honor and glory. Another may offer all these satisfactions in some degree. In other words, the individual's motives for joining a group come in patterns. The overall pattern is different for each group he joins.

THE INDIVIDUAL'S RELATION TO THE GROUP

We have talked in general terms about groups and how they can change from bunches into more tightly knit units. We have discussed the factors involved in the formation of groups. Now, in somewhat greater detail, we will look at the individual's relation to his group. Discussing these aspects should help you understand group phenomena and should give you leadership tools with which to work.

IDENTIFICATION WITH THE GROUP

An individual may feel very much a part of the group to which he belongs or he may treat it with complete indifference. He may sacrifice himself for its welfare, may take very personally the group's success or failure, may feel guilty if he lets the group down. When this is so, we say the individual is closely identified with the group. If he doesn't care what happens to the group, is not inclined to make sacrifices for it, dopes off, and fails to carry his part of the load, his identification is weak. In the former case he reacts to the group as if it were himself;

the group's welfare is his welfare. In the latter case the group is quite distinct from himself. He goes pretty much his own way, with his welfare and the group's welfare two different matters.

A person identifies with a group for the same reasons that he joins a unit—that is for a satisfying and orderly relationship with his fellows, personal rewards, and the prospects of being somebody within the group and within its larger social world. When we deal with identification, however, we are not dealing with an all-or-none matter. Once in the group, he identifies with it to some degree. He may identify very slightly, to a moderate degree, or up to the very hilt. And the degree of identification is proportional to the rewards the individual gets from his membership.

When the group pays off to all its members, when everybody identifies to a high degree, then the group becomes a very active group. It does great things. It does not fall apart when trouble comes. It works hard and fights hard. Its members cooperate with one another and help one another. In short the group is cohesive; its members stick together.

Social and emotional pay-offs are the main things that make an individual identify with a group. The individual says to himself, "I will pitch into the group if it gives me a secure relation with my fellow workers, if I am somebody in the group and because of it, and if the group helps me satisfy some of my personal needs."

Other forces influence a person's identification. In the first place, succeeding is more important than success. It is likely that you will not identify with a group that is successful as strongly as you will with one that is succe ding. A feeling of progress is a psychologically powerful thing. And for your identification to be highest, you must have the feeling the group is improving, is getting somewhere, is reaching its goal. The expectation of success is important in increasing your enthusiasm for the group.

In the second place, it is fairly clear that the nearer the group is to its goal, the greater your identification with it will be. Generally, a person works harder and better the nearer he comes to his goal. This means the members of a group need to see their goals clearly if they are to work best. They will not get as enthusiastic about winning the war as they will about sinking the enemy cruiser on the horizon.

The nature of the group's goal has a lot to do with the members' identification. The more definite the goal is and the more absorbing its importance to the group, the stronger and more dynamic the group tends to become. As the group's goal looms larger in the minds and lives of its members, the members tend to achieve a more definite identity and a more powerful urge to action. We may see this development in a voluntary organization such as the CPO Club. When the members attend a routine business meeting, little identity, cohesion, and spirit may result. But when the club undertakes a project that all its members consider important, it becomes a more definite group, and the members identify themselves more closely with the group. The group also tends to be more structured and organized. Each person has a job to do and the group accepts the authority of certain members.

If you and another person or persons work together as a recognized team, something happens that didn't previously exist. You are now individuals and a team, whereas before you were only individuals. Although no material object has been added to your group, something has been gained. You with the others become a group; you collectively acquire an identity in addition to your individual identities. Your group, in a very real sense, has a life and an identity all its own.

This discussion about identification is meant to give you a set of mental tools that will help you to better understand the wide variety of groups that you will encounter. Now, let's see how our principles apply to actual groups.

We have said that identification is the feeling that the group is MY group; the readiness to work for and defend the group as I would work for and defend myself. And we have said that identification is equal to the amount of psychological income the individual gets from the group.

Now let's compare how two individuals identify with the Navy. First, take John Doe who has been in the Navy fourteen years and who has just made Chief. He is married, has two children. He has the reputation of being one of the best all-round machinists in the Navy. He has many friends—most of them in the Navy, too. He is well-known and respected by officers. Many of the officers he served under as a white hat are now Admirals and Captains. He numbers them among his friends. He is very proud of the Navy. It's HIS Navy. He is a Navy man all the way.

Now look at Seaman Apprentice Richard Roe, who has been in the Navy four months. He is twenty years old and after graduation from high school, he worked as a salesclerk in a local men's clothing store. Then he enlisted in the Navy to fulfill his military obligation. He finds Navy life strange and sometimes uncomfortable in comparison to his civilian life. He is willing to learn but he just doesn't understand the way the Navy works. When someone says "deck" instead of "floor" or "chow" instead of "breakfast" it still seems strange to him. Although he wants to serve his country, he looks forward to completing his Navy enlistment and returning to civilian life. When he is home he never misses a chance to wear civilian clothes; he enjoys seeing all his old friends at the store. When someone makes a wisecrack about the Navy, he never argues with them. It's not HIS Navy. He's merely in it for a while. He'll do his job in the Navy well enough to get by, but rarely any better.

Chief Doe has security in the Navy. He has a career. He has learned a technical specialty. He is an expert machinist. The Navy meets his need to see some of the world. For him, the Navy life is a life in which many of his important needs are satisfied. All this helps him identify with the Navy.

In contrast, Roe doesn't plan to stay around long enough to learn a specialty and achieve a security. His job is back home. His girl is back home. His life is back home. In his mind, the Navy satisfies few, if any, of his needs. So he fails to identify with the Navy. He wants "out."

There they are. A CPO who is typical of many CPOs and a Seaman Apprentice who is also typical of some people in the Navy. We might be tempted to say the CPO is a valuable man and that the SA is just lazy or doesn't give a hoot. Before reaching these conclusions, let's analyze these men in terms of psychological income they receive from the Navy.

A Satisfying, Structured Social Environment

The CPO knows his way around in the Navy. He knows the rules—both the written ones and the unwritten ones. He can operate within these rules and get along very well.

He is clear about his duties and responsibilities as a CPO. He knows what is good and what is bad in the Navy. He knows how to get ahead in the Navy and the reefs and shoals to avoid to stay out of trouble. He knows how to get along with his officers. His Navy life is all structured, all clear to him. The Navy makes sense to him.

Roe, on the other hand, finds Navy life confusing. He definitely doesn't know his way around. He is not sure on what is good and what is bad. Some of the Navy rules, particularly the unwritten ones, confuse and bewilder him. He does what he thinks is a good job and nobody notices. He does what he considers a poor job and sometimes gets away with it. Navy life is strange to him. He feels unsure and insecure. For him, the Navy environment is unstructured. This feeling may vanish with time, but at the moment Roe fails to identify with the Navy because he isn't at home with its way of life.

The CPO has many friends in the Navy. He understands Navy people. His social life has a decided Navy flavor. He likes it that way. The Navy meets his social needs. This helps increase his identification with the Navy way of life.

Roe, on the other hand, while he has a few new friends in the Navy, often wishes to be with his real friends back home. He writes home that "There are some good Joes on my ship but I'd sure like to see George and Charlie again, just like old times." The Navy does not satisfy Roe's social needs—not yet, at any rate, and hence his identification is low. A man is not completely a Navy man unless his friends include some Navy friends.

STATUS WITHIN THE GROUP

The CPO is somebody in the Navy. He not only wears the insignia of his grade and rating but he has a reputation as one of the best men in his rating. He is personally known by many Navy people, including some high ranking officers. He has, as a CPO, a definite responsibility, a definite authority, a definite prestige. He is somebody important to the Navy. The Navy needs him. These feelings, perhaps more than anything else, make the CPO identify with the Navy. He will work for and defend an organization in which he is recognized as an important member.

Roe, on the other hand, is a nobody in the Navy. "Even my CPO," he writes home, "just says 'Hey you' when he wants me. I might as well wear striped pants and have a number for a name." Roe has lost some of his individuality in the shuffle. His CPOs and officers don't bother to treat him as an individual with a particular name and a particular background. After several months in the Navy he still is a

nobody. Certainly it is understandable if he fails to regard it as his Navy.

STATUS BECAUSE OF THE GROUP

The CPO is proud of the Navy. He knows and believes in the Navy's traditions. He volunteered for the Navy, has worked hard for the Navy, has seen the Navy come through in some tough spots. When he wears his uniform ashore he's wearing the uniform of men he knows and admires. He wears the uniform of heroes, some of whom he knows personally. He is proud of it and wears it with an air. It means something to him.

To Roe his uniform is a monkey suit. It is not the uniform of men who have served honorably and sometimes heroically but is an outfit worn by a lot of other guys just like himself and who are all counting the days until they get out. Among his friends back home, being in the Navy is no particular sign of prestige. When he tells a friend he is in the Navy, the friend is as likely to express his sympathy, as he is his approval. This certainly does not increase his identification with the Navy.

These portraits illustrate how satisfactions work to make or break a man's identification with a group—any group. The CPO gets many satisfactions from being in the Navy. Roe, for various reasons, gets fewer satisfactions. The CPO identifies and Roe does not. This does not mean, of course, that all the Roes are losses to the Navy. Some of the Roes often become very fine Navy men. And often, though they may not identify with the Navy as a whole, they do identify with their ship or their unit and give very valuable service. Their CPOs have a lot to do with the course the Roes take.

POSITION WITHIN THE GROUP

If we look at the group, we see that every individual in that group has a position. Some—the leaders and the "important" members of the group are at the center of things. Group life centers about them. They make the policies and form the plans. Others are on the edge of the group. They just hang on. They form no policies, make no plans. They are in a peripheral position.

If we were drawing a map of the complement of a cruiser, we would put the captain at the very center, with the executive officer and various department heads close to the center, junior officers next, CPOs next, rated men next, and non-rated men away out at the edges. This map describes most military groups.

The map that depicts a group of CPOs who are organizing a Chief's club would be different. At the center would be the CPO who is the elected leader. Then there would be many other CPOs close to the center. Such a group has to be a democratic group, for almost every CPO wants to get in on forming plans and policies. Nearly everybody is close to the center. Only a few uninterested individuals are left on the periphery.

You probably have known many Navy groups where the first sort of map does not quite fit. You have known groups where CPOs felt closer to the center of things than indicated in the first example. Some leaders consciously work to bring all hands closer to the center of things. Many commanding officers make it a point to pass the word to everyone under their command—what the plan is and how it is working out. This serves to bring people nearer to the center of things. When people on the edges of groups can make an input, when they know the channels of communication are open, when they know something about what is happening at the center, they feel they are closer to the hub. And this is an important feeling. If you don't believe it, recall your own experiences in Navy groups. Isn't it true that you worked harder for the groups in which you were near the center—in groups where you felt your judgment was important, in groups where you knew where the group was going and why?

This illustrates a basic premise about groups. A man's identification with a group often depends on his position in it. If he is near the center of the group, it is likely to be his group; if he is out on the edge somewhere, he is not so likely to feel that it is his group. It is somebody else's group and he is merely tagging along. Given the slightest excuse, the man on the edge of things may leave and identify with some other group.

There is another thing to remember about position. It's this: actual position and official (or formal) position are not always the same. If the official captain of a football team fails as a leader—if he goes to pieces in emergencies or begins showing extreme partiality—the map of the group changes. The official leader is no longer the functioning leader. The captain keeps his title but the team looks to someone else for leadership.

This sort of thing happens in military groups too. You probably know of groups where the real leader was not the official leader. Military

leaders are given a central position. They don't always keep that central position in spite of official organization. It sometimes demands great skill for the official leader — you — to remain the real leader of military groups.

PARTICIPATION IN THE GROUP

In any group, you will find some people doing things about the group and other people just standing around. And in some groups everybody does something while in others almost everybody does nothing.

If you study the group members who are active, you will find that they are the ones who identify with the group. People often identify with a group because they can participate in it. If this is so, then one way you can increase identification is to find ways in which your group's members can participate and help the group along. The more the participation, the greater the identification.

You can't take a bunch of uninterested men and make them into an integrated group by simply making them work. There apparently has to be some degree of identification with the group before participation takes hold. But if the individual has some desire to help the group, then his identification goes up as he increases his activities.

Now, let's think back for a moment to SA Roe. If you want to do a little mental exercise, tackle for yourself the problem of getting Roe to identify strongly with your unit. How would you make him (and the other Roes) feel like somebody? How would you make men proud of their unit, of their ship, and of the Navy? What could you do to satisfy their important needs? How can you do all this — without pampering anybody? Here are some clues to these questions.

EFFECTIVE GROUPS ARE POTENT GROUPS

When all members of a group identify strongly with a group, the group is called potent. A group's potency can be defined as the average identification of all its members. A group with which all members strongly identify is a highly charged group. It has great potential for action. But a group with which all members identify weakly will not be much more than a collection of individuals.

It is clear that the Navy wants potent groups. To create potent groups we work to make all members identify strongly with the group. It is important that all members identify. If the leader concentrates on making the group satisfying to one or a few of its members, he may increase the identification of those few but he may ruin the group's potency. He will be accused of playing favorites. This may make the favorites work, but the identification of the non-favorites can be counted on to sink rapidly. To increase potency of your group, then, you must work to increase the identification of all your men. To increase their identification, you must make their being in the group pay off. All your men must derive some psychological income.

CREATE A SECURE AND SATISFYING SOCIAL STRUCTURE

The first way you can make your group pay off is to create for all your people a secure and satisfying social structure.

Let Every Man Clearly Know What You Expect Of Him

If you are to have power over me, if your decision will promote me or send me to the brig, it is important to me that I know what you expect of me. If I'm not sure what you deem good or bad, I can easily come down with the jitters. If I'm not sure what are the rules, exactly what my job is, and what your peculiarities are, I'm likely to feel unsure of myself. These can be the thoughts a new man has when he joins a group or those of one who has been in the group for a long time. The leader should accordingly ensure that his followers know what are the rules, what is expected of every man, and just how rewards and punishments are to be handled. This helps his followers to feel secure.

Here's an example of how one CPO gave his group this sort of security.

> "Our new CPO was a lot younger than Chief J. We rather liked Chief J. but our new Chief seemed to do something for us. The second day he reported aboard he called each of us in and talked about what experience we had had and the sort of work we liked to do. About a week later he called us all together after muster and made a little speech about how he suggested we operated. Each man had

a certain job and each man was expected to do it well—without being watched. Also he told us how he was going to handle discipline. He did it that way too. We felt pretty good about it. We knew where we stood. You can work for a guy like that."

This CPO understood what a "structured or orderly environment" is and set about making one for his group and he had a much better group as a result.

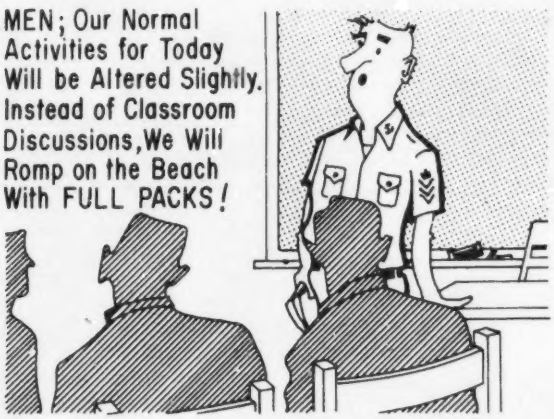
If a man is to be secure in a group he must know where he stands and what is expected of him.

Create An Atmosphere Of Approval

Subordinates do not feel secure unless they believe their leader approves of them. They enthusiastically dislike the powerful leader who suspects them, distrusts them, and disapproves of them. You should, by your behavior and attitudes, show your people that you like and trust them. If you create an atmosphere of approval, your people are less likely to resist your use of dominant leadership style when the situation makes it necessary; they are more inclined to follow you willingly.

Make A Plan And Tell Your Men About It

Few things can disturb a member of a group so much as to be caught by a change of plans about which he hasn't been told.


MEN; Our Normal Activities for Today Will be Altered Slightly. Instead of Classroom Discussions, We Will Romp on the Beach With FULL PACKS!

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If the group obviously ought to be doing something, but nobody seems to have any idea of just what or just how, confusion, unhappiness, and ineffectiveness are the certain results.

The leader has to have a plan. He has to know what to do if his group is to pull together and operate as a group. Plans are important in the every-day routine and they are particularly important in an emergency. When there is danger, when the heat is on, the leader must keep the group together with his plan for action. If he doesn't, the group is likely to fall apart for lack of organization. It is important that the members know the plans so they can see where they are going and why they are going there.

Be Consistent

If I am a powerful leader and you, this time, are one of my followers whom I can toss into the brig or have transferred or recommended for promotion, you are in a quandry if I change the rules on you without your knowing it. If one day I bawl you out for working your men overtime and the next day I bawl you out for not working your men overtime, you are likely to be confused and to be mad and resentful of me. If you need to win my approval (and that means you are dependent on me) you need to know the rules before you can win my approval. If I punish you today for spending ten minutes drinking coffee in the CPO mess and tomorrow I suggest that you go below and relax over a few cups, there is no way you can tell what I like and what I don't.

Your men, if they are going to feel at home in the group, need to know the rules. You must make the rules clear and consistently enforce them. If you are a good leader, your disciplinary problems will be few. If your men identify with the group, they will want to obey the rules. But if you are inconsistent in handing out rewards or punishments, the group will suffer. It will also suffer if you have favorites who get rewards and whipping boys who get the blame. Men are more secure if they know that reward and punishment come to them because of their behavior and performance and not because of your whims, moods, or preferences.

Have A Friendly Group

One of the rewards that comes from belonging to a group is just plain sociability. If we like our co-workers, we will work better for the group. You can often do things to keep your group

working together in a friendly way. Maybe you'll have to get rid of, or convert, a sore-head or two. Maybe you'll have to give fatherly advice to individual members to help them adjust to the group.

And if you are reasonably friendly yourself, it helps. Don't put yourself on a pedestal.

191.66

You'll get on it if you aren't careful. And Americans don't go for pedestals. They prefer leaders who can work with them, laugh with them, sometimes play with them. This does not mean that you've got to win popularity contests but it does mean that in most situations you can be friendly, approachable, interested, encouraging. This helps make the group socially rewarding to its members; they feel they are a team.

GIVE YOUR MEN STATUS WITHIN THE GROUP

The second way of producing identification is to develop each individual's status within the group. The man who belongs, who is somebody, is more likely to identify than the man who is a nobody hanging around the edge.

Treat Each Man As An Individual

It is essential that you do everything possible to make each person feel that he is a vital part of your unit. Extend a personal welcome to each newcomer. Make him feel wanted and needed. Discuss his assignment and let him know for what, for whom, and to whom he is responsible. After the talk, he should feel he has a definite place in your unit and that he is off to a good start.

But your work is not over, for not all the members will accept the new man as you have. Some will attempt to place him on probation until he proves himself. You, by your example, can establish the manner in which they should also receive him.

Even though the man is accepted by his comrades, you must still give him all the individual attention your time will permit, just as you must do for all members of your team. Each must be continually assured that he is a definite part of the team. It is an endless process.

Here is the way one CPO made all his people feel a real part of their unit. Place: the I. C. shop aboard USS---------

"Every morning the Chief would be there at 0730 and have coffee with his gang. He was always asking the different men how they were. If a man didn't say good morning to the Chief he said good morning to him first. When he greeted you the tone of his voice assured you he meant it. Then everyone would talk over what we were going to do that day. Everyone had a chance to give ideas as to how we could do a better job, whether we were working on that job or not. Due to that, our work benefited from the experience of all the men.

"Since the Chief always gave us a 'fill-in' ahead of time on work to be done we knew what was coming up except when an emergency happened.

"The Chief always said 'our gang' speaking of the I. C. gang, never 'My gang.'

"He went through sixth grade in school but made Chief in eight years."

This CPO did several things that made his men feel like somebody.

- He showed a personal interest in their welfare.
- He asked for their ideas and listened to them.
- He treated them as individuals.

Look After The Welfare Of Your People

Another way of giving your people status within the group is to do things for them, to back them up—as a group or as individuals. The Bible makes the point tha' "He who would be great amongst you, let him be the servant of all." It may be as good a leadership principle as it is a religious principle.

When you get the best for your people, when you protect them from unfairness, when you see that they have every comfort and convenience that circumstances permit, you are telling each person: "You are important. You deserve the best."

If you take all the comfort and the leisure and the credit, you are indirectly saying to each of your people: You are a nobody, only I am a somebody. You don't rate in my book. It isn't hard to imagine how a group will react to that.

Your need to support your unit cannot be overemphasized. When your men believe that you are looking after their best interests, that they can depend on your assistance and genuine interest, that you will be fair and impartial in all your dealings, you not only build their trust and confidence but their reciprocal support for your efforts. In a mutually supportive climate, your men will help you when the going gets rough, when there's a big deadline to meet, when they have to give you that extra effort to do the job. You have a mutually "win-win" situation.

MAKE YOUR PEOPLE PROUD OF THEIR GROUP

A major way of helping your men identify with a group is to build their status because of the group. If a man proudly tells his friends that he's stationed aboard the USS America, or the PC 196, then he identifies with his group. Pride strengthens identification. To capitalize on this principle, we have to find ways to make people proud of their units. Although this is sometimes difficult, it can be done and doing it pays off.

A general rule is that a group has to be distinctive in some way before its members can be proud of it. It has to stand apart from other groups for its members to boast about it, tell others about it. Here are some tips to help your unit have an identity all its own.

People Are Proud Of Units That Are Distinctly Rewarding

"This C.I.C. team is the best gang I have ever belonged to. We are a good outfit." If you look behind this sailor's pride in his C.I.C. team, you will likely find that his CPO is smarter, goes to bat for his men more often and more successfully, and generally is a better leader than most. This sailor thinks the other members of the team are better fellows than those in any other team. When he has such feelings about his group, he will tell the world about it. Maybe the gang will get a distinctive nickname. When this happens you know the group has arrived as a group. It is really satisfying to its members.

People Are Proud Of Units That Are Distinctly Successful

Everyone likes to win and they like to be associated with a unit that wins. If you arrange for your group to do a job so well that other groups hear about it, you can expect your men to show great pride. They will talk about the group and make it a point to tell everybody that they belong to it.

If you know your group well, you can generally find something which it can do well. Even if that something is no more earthshaking than the winning of the checkers championship of the ship or the softball game when the ship is in port, you ought to encourage your group to do it—as a team. Almost any group success increases the group's potency.

But use caution when you promote recreational activities in striving for your unit to excel. Be careful about using man-hours in nice but secondary activities not directly associated with the mission. Remember that your first job is to be ready for wartime operations, and to find activities that will enhance the skill of your unit to meet its ultimate objective. There are many other units comparable to yours, and to be tops in any category is not always easy. It is best for you to compare your unit with similar ones

and decide just how your unit might be outstanding. The possibilities are unlimited.

People Are Proud Of A Group That Does Useful And Important Work

You like to feel important and you like to feel your work is important. But there are a lot of people in the Navy who fail to see the importance of their jobs. They don't see that what they are doing has much to do with either winning or preventing wars.

You can increase your group's feeling of importance by pointing out to your people how their work fits into the overall scheme of the Navy's mission and their ship's mission. These are small things. But anything that helps them see the importance of their work is worth your time and effort.

CREATE REALISTICALLY CHALLENGING GOALS

Effective groups are succeeding groups. The effective unit—and the effective individual—is one that anticipates success. The gunnery crew of a ship that sets out to win the gunnery championship of their division will work vigorously toward that goal only if it is getting somewhere and has a fair chance of winning. If the men are convinced that it is impossible to achieve this goal, they will not really try. The unit will be ineffective. The unit that expects failure will be depressed, erratic and without zip—and likely to experience failure.

Groups will work hard if the goal is realistic and within reach. If the coach of Short Pump State College tells his team of small but sturdy football players he expects them to beat the number one team in the country, he is unlikely to get much work from his men. Such a goal is unrealistic. As it is so high, no member of the team has any real hope of success. But if the goal is to score on the number one team, there will be more enthusiasm. The boys will work hard to perfect the plays that will let them score on their opponents. They will work equally hard to get ready for a game next week with a neighboring team that has licked them ten times in the last 16 encounters. That is a goal that might be reached.

Now if the goal is to beat another nearby college team that hasn't won a game in seven years, the boys are not likely to work hard either. As it's such an easy goal, it challenges nobody.

The goal must be realistically challenging if the group is to work towards it with energy and commitment.

You can easily apply this principle to Navy groups you have known.

A former heavy cruiser Captain, recounting some post World War II experiences, tells this story:

> "We had a spirited crew and my officers were bright and eager younsters. But only about a third of my people knew one end of a cruiser from the other. Green—very green. Officers and enlisted men alike. Our experienced people had mostly gone home after the war was over. But we would still have been a good ship if it weren't for the training schedule they sent us. We just couldn't keep up with it. We tried. Everybody tried. But we just could not accomplish the things our schedule called for. Our people were just too green to do the maneuvering and learning they said we should do. Things went from bad to worse. My officers were practically ready to jump overboard. The men were all unhappy. I had to step in and set our sights lower. When we started at a realistic pace toward reasonable day to day goals, we settled down to good work again. Nobody felt like they wanted to commit suicide."

When goals are set too high, the group will not function well. Frustration, unhappiness, and resentment are the likely results. Goals that are set at a realistically challenging level promote good morale within the group.

The tip here—and it's a practical one—is this: Don't expect the impossible from your people unless there is a reasonable chance for achievement.

CREATE CONCRETE, NEAR-AT-HAND GOALS

It's hard to get excited about something that will happen fifty years or a hundred miles from here. We live in a world of here-and-now. It's unnatural for a ship's crew to take as its goal the winning of the Efficiency "E" award five years from now. But it is natural for them to get excited about winning the "E" award this year.

Five major things that you can do to create potent groups are:

- Create a secure and satisfying social structure
- Give your people status within the group
- Make your men proud of their group
- Create realistically challenging goals
- Create concrete, near-at-hand goals

BENEFITS OF GROUP SOLIDARITY AND ESPRIT DE CORPS

When each man feels that he is an essential part of your unit and when he has a constant sense of pride in the strength and purpose of the unit, you have esprit de corps.

Esprit de corps is a deep and enduring feeling of loyalty to, and confidence in, the unit. It is akin to the feeling you hold for your country, for your school, or even for your family. It is blended with a feeling of the collective strength of the unit and confidence in that strength. In esprit de corps, you have a winning combination that will give you victories in peace or war. When you achieve esprit de corps, your job of leadership is more than half done.

In combat, this feeling of identification with the unit, this drawing of confidence and security from group solidarity, bestows its ultimate value. The identification of each man with the unit, an identification so strong that he feels his fate and the fate of his unit are one, is a good guarantee that he will work and fight with it. As he is so much a part of the unit, he draws strength and courage from its mass and power. He thinks, perhaps without realizing it, in terms of its objectives rather than his own. He willingly subordinates his own interests for the good of the unit. In a large measure, this determines his combat effectiveness.

Group solidarity is extremely important to men who become captives of the enemy. Prisoners of war need the feeling of team unity to help maintain their courage and to resist any brainwashing and interrogation by the enemy, and in many cases to stand mistreatment and torture by the enemy. Many accounts from the Korean Conflict bear this out. Identification with the unit, the feeling of group solidarity, gives each person greater strength and courage to withstand enemy efforts against him.

Unity of the team is important in all situations and at all times, in peace and war. Only through teamwork developed during close association will your men have faith in their unit. Napoleon attributed his defeat at Waterloo to the belief that his men "had not eaten soup together long enough."

Your men must work with one another in supportive ways; otherwise your unit will disintegrate into bickering cliques and you will have a house divided. A man must feel that, like himself, his associates are competent men on whom he can depend in any situation. No man can do his job well if he is constantly wondering whether his fellow workers are properly accomplishing their part of the job.

YOUR RELATION TO THE GROUP

When you understand the type of group you are leading and when you practice your social skills, you can do practical things to improve the effectiveness of your unit. You now have the foundation for a practical approach to group effectiveness.

There are no simple rules that you can memorize and apply to all groups. The groups you encounter are of many kinds. The things you do in leading one group will be different from those you do in leading another. A practical understanding of how groups generally operate will help you to diagnose and prescribe for any group you may be called upon to lead.

WHEN CHANGE IS NECESSARY

You may find it necessary to make changes in your unit—changes that will build confidence, increase efficiency and esprit de corps, and raise morale. What can you do to decrease people's resistance to change? Frankly, there is no simple answer, no cure-all.

People who do the same thing the same way over a period of time form habits. They become accustomed to doing it one certain way. Naturally, they are often reluctant to learn a new way; the established way is satisfactory to them. To lower their resistance to doing it a new way you (1) help them see the value of the proposed change, and (2) allow them to participate in planning and instituting the change. Here are some additional guidelines that can help a great deal.

Never change for change's sake. When things are going poorly, the temptation to make changes is great. Reorganizing, changing procedures, or changing people too often seems a cure-all; yet rarely is this the case. Such simple reasons as misunderstanding of present procedures, improper training of personnel, failure to delegate authority when assigning responsibility, or poor supervision are often the real causes of failure. You should carefully and fully evaluate the situation before you institute changes. Change that does not improve is wasteful.

If possible, wait until you are firmly established in your job and have the confidence of your people before making changes. Subordinates often develop a strong sense of loyalty to their supervisor. To make changes immediately after beginning a new job is to imply that the previous supervisor was incompetent. This may generate distrust and resentment that will be hard to overcome. A thorough knowledge of your job and the confidence of your people help you to institute change effectively.

Seek the advice and counsel of your people before making changes. As we have previously stated, people are more likely to accept and support the change when they have an active part in planning for it and putting it into effect.

Plan and take positive steps to alleviate threats to the safety, belonging, esteem, and self-fulfilling needs of those affected by the change. When reorganizing, try to assign people to jobs equal to, or at a higher level than, their previous ones.

Head off fears of change by keeping all who will be affected fully informed. Rumors snowball quickly; don't let them start.

Be honest with your people; let them know how they will be affected. Tell them what steps are being taken to protect their security, status, and their present mode of living.

Follow through on changes to nip possible problems in the bud. Make sure that the change is properly carried out, and make corrections as necessary. Practice this principle of leadership: Insure that a job is understood and accomplished.

STRIVE FOR GROUP UNITY

A group tends to accept most readily and to give its best responses to you when you successfully unify and stimulate your group. People like to follow the person who can organize a group, give it an identity, and inspire its allegiance to a common purpose.

Successful leaders initiate ideas or, what is equally important, support and develop the ideas of others. They reconcile disagreements and give the group the information it needs when it needs it. They try not to be swayed by their own feelings and emotions, nor do they blindly pursue their own preferences and prejudices.

HELP THE GROUP TO ACHIEVE ITS GOAL

A successful leader helps the group to move towards its goal. He inspires the enthusiastic effort and cooperation of his group. He is an expert in bringing out the best in his followers and directing them toward the mission in the quickest and surest manner.

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When you help the members achieve their common purpose, you are well on your way toward becoming the real leader of the group. By real leader we do not mean the person who controls the group solely through his legal authority. Rather, we mean the person who exerts influence through his knowledge, competence, creditability, and his understanding of group dynamics and human relations.

KNOW YOUR PEOPLE

Morale is high in a unit in which each member is allowed to work at his highest level of responsibility or satisfaction. You should know the abilities of each man so that you can assign to him responsibilities that allow him to use his skills and abilities. You should also assign him responsibilities that have some built-in challenge and that result in his growth and development on the job.

The organization that you set up should identify the tasks to be accomplished, specify who is responsible, and indicate the formal lines of communication. Your group should operate in such a way that it recognizes and protects the individual's position. Lines of communications and responsibility should provide answers to questions about what is to be done, who does it, and how well it is being done.

The leader sets the rules of the game and the systems for rewards, punishments, and advancement. The men in the unit want credit when they do a good job. They want to be looked upon as individuals, not as cogs in a machine. To satisfy their need for recognition, the leader must take a genuine personal interest in them. He should compliment them for good work, particularly for good work which most people have not noticed. Such recognition is sincere, and the men know that it is.

In summary, the effective leader supports his people and he channels their energies toward constructive work goals. The members of the OI Division, USS_____ summed it all up in a letter they wrote to their Chief just before he was transferred:

> "At this time, it seems altogether fitting that we, as your division, should express what it has meant to us, having you as our Chief. For some, you are the fourth personality we have had to adjust to as our leader. For others, only the first. They know not how lucky they are.
>
> "The man who follows you will have a big vacuum to fill. At the risk of sounding sentimental, may we say 'Thank you, Chief.' Because of you we are a group, a functioning body. If there has been a problem, a gripe, or a questionable situation, you have given us a way to turn. Your ideas and your enthusiasm have been contagious.
>
> "Our hours are rotten and some personalities have seemed unendurable. But you have been the main stay and the smoothing stone over many bumpy times. You have opened your home to us. You have given freely of your time, your energy, and your enthusiasm. We, as your division, would like to take the opportunity to say 'Thank you.'
>
> "May the coming years and your new stations be the best. We are proud to be serving with you."

CHAPTER 10

PROBLEM-SOLVING AND DECISION-MAKING

Solving a problem and making a wise decision challenge a leader's abilities to analyze the problem and to apply sound judgment to satisfactorily resolve the situation. Often there is more than one solution to the problem. The leader must select the decision that will most likely produce the desired results and with the minimum undesirable side effects. This is what management, supervision, and leadership are all about. They are specialized skills that demand the best you have to give.

Making a decision is closely related to solving a problem. Each of us constantly faces choices between alternative actions. Each day we decide what to do and how to do it. Most decisions that we make each day are routine and may have no real significance in our lives. However, some of the decisions we make affect our lives for days, weeks, or even a lifetime. The skill and intelligence with which we decide the situations that we routinely face each day may well determine the outcome of our personal and professional lives. In this chapter, we discuss the problem-solving and decision-making process that contributes to effective leadership.

UNDERSTANDING THE PROBLEM

A problem becomes intelligible when it is thoroughly analyzed and, when possible, put into words. The manager who lays out his problem in an orderly way stands a better chance of reaching the right outcome than the one who relies on snap judgments.

As you explore the problem, you need to differentiate between tasks that demand only the application of known techniques and those that have unusual conditions that require ingenuity and imagination. For example, the mail dispatching staff that is faced with an unusual spate of envelopes knows that extra effort and perhaps extra time will get the job done; but if there is an unusual number of complaints about wrong addresses, accompanied by a mounting pile of uncompleted orders, then you have a more complex problem.

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A problem can generally be solved if the person responsible grasps its nature, gauges its true dimensions, decides what to do about it, and takes immediate steps to cope with it. He breaks a big problem down into small, easily-tackled units, changing a vague difficulty into a specific concrete matter.

MAKING THE DECISION

The ability to make sound decisions pertains to all phases of leadership. Sound decisions, made and carried out on both major and minor matters, help determine long-term success both for you and your associates.

Begin by asking yourself the following questions:

- Is decision-making a process? Can it be analyzed and broken down into steps?
- Is it a skill that you can learn and improve with use?
- Can you teach others how to make sound decisions?

"Yes" is the answer to each of these questions. However, successful decision-making is neither an easy nor a routine task. The lengthy, complex process of exploring and analyzing that precedes the decision itself is one of a leader's most challenging responsibilities.

Decision-making has four phases:

- Analyzing the situation
- Finding possible courses of action
- Evaluating possible courses of action
- Choosing the optimum course of action

This sequence is, however, far more complex than it first appears. Each phase for any particular decision is in itself a complex decision-making process. There are wheels within wheels within wheels. Nevertheless, these four broad categories appear again and again when you observe the decision-making process in operation. These are closely related to stages in problem solving first described by John Dewey, the educator:

- What is the problem?
- What are the alternatives?
- Which alternative is best?

To reach a rational decision, you go through mental gymnastics that approach the following sequence. You ask yourself:

- Is there a need for a decision?
- What is the situation?
- What is the nature of the problem situation? Must I set priorities if the problem has more than one facet?
- What are the possible courses of action?
- What will be the consequences for each course of action?
- Which alternative is the best in terms of both long-term and short-term results?
- What is the plan of action and schedule for carrying out the decision?
- What alternative plan of action is to be taken if the original decision fails?

In each of these eight steps several decisions may need to be made. Therefore, the process becomes a logical, systematic, step-by-step procedure. It starts with the identification of the problem and progresses to the determination of its cause. Then it goes on to the development and selection of a solution which is finally and fully safe-guarded by sound control procedures.

When broken down this way, decision-making sounds complex. However, if this process is studied, the techniques understood and seriously used the next few months, each time you are up against a tough decision, it should become a natural part of your subconscious process.

Sometimes decisions can be made without following this detailed process. The process should be utilized only to the degree needed. A cardinal rule is that your decision must be adequate to the solution of the problem. There is no use in attacking a tank with a pea-shooter, and it is equally undesirable to shoot sparrows with a cannon.

A simple issue as to whether or not to use black or white paper for a report cover does not require a detailed approach to a decision as herein outlined. On the other hand, a problem that requires a solution instead of routine handling deserves a more detailed and analytic approach to sound alternatives and responsible action.

THE EIGHT STEPS OF DECISION-MAKING

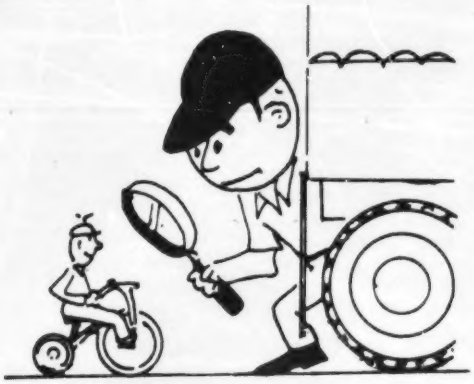
The bulk of most people's work and lives is composed of routine matters which can be satisfactorily disposed of by snap judgment or routine procedures. Be alert, nevertheless, to recognize the exception, the situation that calls for applying the following process to a wise decision. Let's examine this process in detail.

FIRST, THE NEED FOR A DECISION— IS THERE A PROBLEM?

Poor decisions often result because we fail to recognize the problem and act on impulse. The first step in sound decision-making is the

ability to recognize problems requiring solutions instead of routine handling. We need to detect the intangibles as well as the tangibles in the work environment. These intangibles include your people's attitudes towards their work, each other, and the organization. The tangibles include their level of performance, the personal factors that influence their performance, and the quality of work they turn out. For example, the people we supervise are supposed to turn out 500 units of work per month. As long as this happens each month there is no problem. However, if you discover that last month only 250 units were produced the problem is apparent. The ability to see and identify most problems of this type is simple but it is more difficult to discover problems that involve people's feelings, emotions, and attitudes for perception of the individual and understanding of human behavior is required. Open communications and feedback in an atmosphere of mutual trust are vital to recognizing this type problem.

Perhaps we merely sense by an uneasy feeling that things are going wrong. When your intuition tells you to take another look — do so.



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Sit down and figure out what is actually going on and what should be happening. If there is a difference, you have a problem — and it's the difference between "actual" and "should."

It helps to ask yourself a few questions:

(a) Is the situation different from what I usually face?
(b) Could the "off the top of my head" answer be wrong?
(c) Is the situation beginning to look more complicated as I give it more thought?

Sound judgment dictates that a "yes" answer to these questions on a situation that might be important calls for cautious handling — not snap judgment. A lifetime batting average of sound and effective decisions will be high if you are successful in this first step: namely, that of knowing when there is a real need for a decision.

SECOND, WHAT IS THE SITUATION?

Pertinent facts about a situation are the basis for sound decisions. Situations do not just happen. They come about for various reasons. Something different, new, or unplanned occurred to change the situation. Your job is to ask, "What happened? What caused the problem? What are the circumstances?" The more relevant information you gather, the better your chance of a sound solution.

Making a wise decision requires self-discipline and an objective point of view. Gathering relevant information takes time, is painstaking, and above all, requires careful analysis. So-called facts are often misleading or wrong. There is a need to resist the strong temptation to take a few obvious pieces of information, hope they are relevant and important and then make a quick decision. Have you heard both sides of the case? Are you certain that a systematic fact-finding campaign has been waged? Do you really know the facts from which to draw conclusions? Have you talked to all the people who may have pertinent information? Have you objectively evaluated all their opinions before reaching a conclusion? These are the types of questions that must be raised to make certain that all pertinent facts are available. Anything short of this is depending on luck and sheer chance for a sound decision to be made.

You should organize the evidence and analyze what you have that is significant. The story is told of the harassed gentleman who came into the local newspaper office to place an ad. It read, "$500 reward for return of my wife's large black cat." The editor, with raised eyebrows, queried, "Why offer $500 when $5 would be ample?" "Well," our hero replied, "It pays to have the facts. You see, I drowned that goll-darned cat three days ago." There is no panacea to offer for sound decision making. However, when you approach the point of decision by setting out your problem in an orderly way you stand a better chance of reaching the right outcome than if you rely on snap judgment.

Facts are essential to grasp the nature of a problem, gauge its true dimension, and break it down into small easily-tackled units. Facts are statements about events or conditions, imagined or real, which represent realities. Nothing brings your subordinates into the picture more effectively than asking their advice when solving a tough problem. This not only builds the staff's self-confidence — it may turn up some facts and good ideas that you may never have considered. To make a sound decision, it helps not only to have all the available facts but to know what facts are missing. This permits you to make allowance for the gap and to decide how rigid to make your decision.

Fact gathering changes a vague difficulty into a specific concrete form. It tidies up the problem and lets you move on to the next step.

THIRD, THE NATURE OF THE PROBLEM — PROBLEMS AND THE PRIORITY THEY ASSUME

Identifying the real problem as separate and distinct from the apparent problem is the next step in systematic decision making. Sometimes you may identify the symptoms of a problem situation and fail to recognize the deeper and underlying problem. As a decision-maker you must not only recognize the problem behavior but you must also identify and treat the underlying causes that prompted it in the first place. A doctor treats not only the fever of a disease but he searches for the basic cause of the illness by examining the patient's medical history, recent changes in his physical and mental condition, his living habits, etc. A leader uses his understanding and analysis of human behavior to discover the basic cause of a problem situation.

Problems often come in bunches, like grapes. Identifying the problem will determine whether it is a single item or two or three things that need decisions. Priorities must then be set. It's often a good course of action to solve them one at a time, to avoid confusing the issues. To know which is the most important, you rate them. This requires making comparisons. Which is the most urgent? What is their relative seriousness? etc. Also, you need to consider the availability of pertinent information. You may save time by solving No. 3 ahead of No. 2 if the facts are not immediately available on No. 2. After the problems have been fully recognized and given priority, you are ready to determine the alternative courses of action.

FOURTH, WHAT ARE THE ALTERNATIVE COURSES OF ACTION?

You now analyze the facts gathered that help explain the situation. You study the available information as it is collected to see what you can learn from it. Actually this is a good point to mention that the steps in developing a sound decision are overlapping procedures — not scenes in a play where each act is completed and finished before another starts. The analysis of data requires a high degree of judgment. Significant points begin to stand out. However, in general the average decision-maker will probably face these conditions:

- He may have more data than he has time to use.
- He may have facts that he does not know how to use.
- Some data may be dangerous to use.
- Some facts are useless.
- Data may show up too late to be useful.
- He may fail to get some facts he really needs.

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There is no formula for analyzing data to determine its significance. Basically it involves looking at the facts separately and collectively, and searching for meanings and why things happened. From this process new and different ideas begin to develop. The possible solutions to correct the situation are firming up.

Clear identification of the possible separate courses of action is important in answering the question "What are the various decisions I can make to solve the problem?"

The key point is to develop a number of different courses of action. The reasons are obvious: we make the best use of available information and resources; and we greatly improve our chances of coming up with a sound, wise decision.

Begin by listing every practical course of action. At this point try to think creatively. You want to make certain you consider all possible courses of action. At this stage do not list the pros and cons of each possibility.

This step demands time and energy. It tests your initiative, creativity, and imagination. It challenges you to be objective in your thinking by not letting your personal biases assume importance. It asks that you forego making judgments about people in the situation until all the facts are collected. It demands that you be flexible in your thinking and that you consider new approaches to solving the problem. When you carry out this step well, you are in a favorable position as you head into the final steps of decision-making.

FIFTH, WHAT WILL BE THE CONSEQUENCES?

At this stage of decision-making, you need two columns for writing down the points "for" and "against" each alternative course of action. Ask, "What will happen if. . . ? Does this course of action take care of A, B, and C possibilities?" Include long and short-range advantages and disadvantages. When you do this seriously and honestly, you have a good analysis of the various alternatives.

Any one of several decisions can correct a problem. However, not all possible courses of action are equally good. Your task is to compare the alternatives and decide which one is best.

There are three criteria to use. Ask yourself:

- Will this course of action achieve my objectives?
- Is this course of action feasible?
- Will this alternative action have any undesirable consequences?

SIXTH, WHICH ALTERNATIVE IS TO BE CHOSEN?

You are now ready to make the decision with good reason to hope that it will be a sound one. This step is often the simplest and easiest of the whole process.

Evaluating the possible courses of action logically leads to selecting one of them. This is, however, a last opportunity to review your choice—to take a second look prior to committing yourself to a definite course of action:

- Are you certain that it will accomplish your objectives—will it correct or change the condition requiring a decision?
- Can the people affected carry it out? Can you do it with the available resources?

Above all, reconsider the consequences by thinking ahead and actively seeking to visualize all the possible results of this particular decision. This involves testing every step leading to the decision and anticipating what will be the results.

The responsibility of decision-making involves the risk of going astray. The consequences of a decision are part of the total problem and should be considered as essential elements in the decision-making process. You must balance risk against gain and be neither deterred nor dazzled by either. Consider how the person's or group's will to work may be affected. Short-term gains must be weighed against the long-term objectives.

Excuses for postponing a decision are easy to find. However, long delays in making decisions often result in wasted time, loss of teamwork, and forfeiture of confidence in management. Postponement may be wise in certain cases when it is warranted. Remember, however, that to make no decision is in fact a decision that must be fully justified.

SEVENTH, WHAT IS THE PLAN OF ACTION AND SCHEDULE FOR CARRYING OUT THE DECISION?

Now that you have made a decision, the next step is to take action. You must not only clearly state your decision but give guidance to those who carry it out.

The following control procedures will alert you to take corrective action, if needed:

- Anticipate what you will do if things go wrong. Seek ways to head off or prevent adverse results. Realize that obstacles are certain to show up. The road may be strewn with rocks but that may only mean that it is a rough road, not that you are going in the wrong direction.

- Set up a warning schedule. You need a well laid out schedule or timetable which tells you when you are likely to approach the danger signals as you progress toward the goal.

- Compare what actually happened during each phase with the objective. Here you establish standards that incorporate the actualities of the situation.

- Develop a system for getting information about your program as it progresses. You need to decide who will be responsible for keeping an eye on things, when they should report back to you, and how.

EIGHTH, HOW WELL HAS THE DECISION WORKED OUT IN PRACTICE? IF IT FAILED, WHAT ALTERNATIVE CAN BE TAKEN?

Consider changing your course of action if you learn some important new facts that appear to alter the situation. Consult in advance all those who are to be affected by the decision as you need their cooperation. No decision can be better than the people who must carry it out. Their cooperation and understanding are essential if you must re-direct your course of action.

Have other alternatives from which you can choose if the original decision proves to be unsatisfactory. Often the most carefully thought-out decision will prove to be ineffective if circumstances change. If you have thought through alternatives as you make your decision, you have something to fall back on. Back-up alternative courses of action will stand you in good stead, particularly if you must change course without delay.

Continually obtain data on how your decision is meeting the goal or solving the problem. You can ask your subordinates for their feelings as they are the ones who must implement the decision. As they are actively involved in the real-life work situation, they are in a good position to give you suggestions, criticisms, and recommendations. Their feedback of information enables you to modify or cancel your decision as you deem necessary. Feedback also furnishes a reservoir of information that you may draw upon to develop a new course of action. Feedback helps you to evaluate accurately the situation and to make decisions that fit the circumstances.

As you make your decision keep the following points in mind:

- Clarify and analyze all proposals before moving toward decisions. Ask yourself such questions as these: Why is this necessary or desirable? What can it be expected to accomplish? How can it be worked out? Who will do it? Who will be affected by it? What harmful situations might result?

- Superior decision-making rests on a solid basis of preparation, with a grasp of all the ramifications and possibilities. When you reach a tentative conclusion, try to knock it down with dispassionate energy. Ask yourself: "What will happen if. . . ? Does this decision take care of possibilities A, B, and C?" By proceeding in this way a manager borrows the scientific method and spirit: the resolute asking of the questions "What else?" . . . and "What if?". . .

- Pay attention to detail in the preliminary stages, while always keeping in mind the end purpose. Toscanini, the great music conductor, is quoted as saying: "In rehersing a musical work, the important passages often take care of themselves; it is the supposedly unimportant phrase or line that needs careful consideration."

- Be flexible in your thinking. Be enthusiastic but do not let it blind you to facts. An opinion about a situation is only something that comes between ignorance and understanding. It is knowledge in the making. To change an opinion in the face of new facts signifies vitality and progress.

• Think through the proposed decision to its conclusion. Test every step leading to the decision and anticipate what may follow upon it.

IMPLEMENTING THE DECISION

After you define the problem, collect the facts, analyze the cause of the problem, weigh the alternatives, listen to the thinking of others, check the accuracy of your information and of your thinking, decide on the best course of action, the next step is to implement your decision.

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It is important to execute it, not to pigeonhole it. An idea has been born, it has evolved, and been transformed into a decision. Now you must set the necessary forces into motion to make your decision a reality.

Anticipate positive results but also face the possibility of unexpected obstacles or even failure. Your positive attitude, enthusiasm, and sustained interest can often overcome obstacles or roadblocks and promote the chances for a successful outcome.

Be flexible and change your decision if you learn some vital new facts that argue against it. But don't change your mind merely because you run into obstacles.

Consider the timing for putting your decision into effect. Favorable work conditions or the availability of qualified people at a particular time can mean the difference between success or failure.

Make sure that those who are to carry out your decision clearly understand what they are to do. Your people must know what change in behavior you expect of them, what change to expect in the behavior of others with whom they work, and what change will be made in the working conditions. Subject your decision to six questions—why? what? when? how? where? who? Once you determine the answers to them, in the above order, your decision will probably be an orderly, organized one.

Mechanical problems associated with your decision are relatively simple compared with human problems. For example, your decision may change the status of workers, and it is astonishing how a person will be annoyed and deeply pained by any seeming wrong done to his feelings of self-importance. Careful advance consultation of all those who are to be affected by the decision gives you the benefit of their experience and their ideas, and makes them participants in shaping the decision.

Human motivations and human emotions are factors in the solution of every problem. The manager must appraise the spirit of his people, tap their interest, and assure their cooperation in carrying out plans upon which he decides.

Of this be sure: no decision can be better than the people who have to carry it out. Their enthusiasm, competence, and understanding determine what they can and will do.

CHAPTER 11

TEACHING AND LEARNING

A leader has a responsibility to train his people in their present duties and for future responsibilities. Most jobs are usually performed adequately but they can often be performed better. Equipment is constantly changing, and people must be trained to operate the new equipments. New people in the unit must be instructed in their duties, rights, benefits, and opportunities for advancement. Through effective training, you can develop the potential of your people.

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Through training, you help meet your subordinates' need for growth and development that we discussed in chapter 2.

You train and your people learn. How you train your people depends largely on your understanding of how people learn and your ability to apply that understanding. This chapter discusses the broad aspects of the learning process which you can apply to any learning situation be it a formal lecture, group discussion, or on-the-job training.

WHAT IS LEARNING?

One of man's outstanding characteristics is that he learns. He learns continuously from the time he is born until he dies. To define learning, we must analyze what happens to the person. His learning experience may change his ways of perceiving, thinking, feeling, and doing. Learning can be defined as a change in behavior as a result of experience. The behavior can be physical and overt, or it can be intellectual or attitudinal, not easily seen. Behavioral scientists generally agree, however, on some characteristics of learning. A leader should understand these and apply them to his training program.

CHARACTERISTICS OF LEARNING

LEARNING IS PURPOSEFUL

Each person sees the learning situation from a different viewpoint, because he is a unique person whose past experiences affect his readiness to learn and his understanding of the requirements involved. Suppose that the examination for advancement is only a week away. One person may study hard every evening to do well on the examination. Another may make minimum preparation because he feels he hasn't much chance to advance. Still another may be afraid of freezing up and make no preparation. Their responses differ because each person acts according to the requirements he sees in the situation.

Most people have fairly definite ideas about what they want to do and achieve. Their goals sometimes are short term, a matter of days or weeks. Or they may be carefully planned goals for a career or a lifetime. A person brings his purposes and goals into the work situation. Some of his purposes may be unique and others may be shared with his co-workers. A trainee learns from an activity that helps to further his own purposes. His individual needs and notions may determine what he learns quite as much as what the instructor is trying to get him to learn. In the act of learning, the learner's purpose is of great significance. The effective instructor seeks ways to relate learning to the student's goals.

LEARNING COMES THROUGH EXPERIENCE

Learning is an individual process. The instructor cannot do it for the student; he cannot pour knowledge into the student's head. The student can learn only from that which he experiences for himself.

Learning and knowledge cannot exist apart from a person. A person's knowledge results from his experience and no two people have had identical experiences. Even when observing the same event, two people react differently; they learn different things from it according to the way the situation affects their individual needs. Previous experience conditions a person to respond to some things and to ignore others.

All learning is by experience, but it takes place in different forms and in varying degrees. Some experiences involve the whole person; others, only his hearing and his memory. The leader is faced with the problem of providing experiences that are meaningful, varied, and appropriate. For example, by repeated drill a subordinate can learn to recite instructions, or he can learn to recite the principles of leadership by rote. But he can make them part of his life only if he understands them well enough to apply them correctly in real situations, which he can do if his learning experience has been extensive and meaningful. If an experience challenges the learner, requires involvement of his feelings, thoughts, memory of past experiences, and physical activity, it is more effective than an experience in which all the learner has to do is to commit something to memory.

Learning a physical skill requires actual experience in performing that skill. A person learns to fly an airplane only if he flies one. Mental habits are also learned through practice. If a person is to use sound judgment and solve problems well, he must have learning experiences in which he has exercised judgment and applied his knowledge of general principles in solving realistic problems.

LEARNING IS MULTIFACED

Later in this chapter, there is a discussion on the various kinds of learning — learning skills, learning concepts, learning generalizations, etc. The separation is an expedient that may seem to suggest that learning is compartmentalized. Actually, the student's full set of learning equipment is always involved.

A person studying radar maintenance may be learning to perform a specific operation, such as changing the radar antennae on certain aircraft. But in the process, he is learning new concepts and generalizations, perhaps learning new applications of electronic principles. He learns something about handling electronic equipment in general. His experience results in changed ways of seeing, feeling, thinking, and doing, although his instructor may have been primarily concerned with his ability to change radar antennae.

If a leader sees his objective as being only to train the trainee's memory or muscles, he underestimates the potential of the teaching situation. The trainee may have learned much that the teacher had not intended, for the trainee did not leave his thinking mind or his feelings at home, just because they were not included in the leader's training program.

Psychologists sometimes classify learning by types: verbal, conceptual, perceptual, motor, problem solving, and emotional. Several types of learning may take place at the same time. For example, a group learning to repair a machine may actually repair the machine.

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In doing so, it engages in verbal learning and sensory perception at the same time. Each trainee approaches the task with preconceived ideas and feelings, and for many trainees these ideas change with experience. The learning process, therefore, may include verbal elements, conceptual elements, perceptual elements, emotional elements, and problem solving elements, all taking place simultaneously.

Learning is multifaced in still another sense. While learning the material at hand, trainees may be learning other things as well. They may be learning cooperation and group dynamics. They may be developing attitudes about the Navy—good or bad, depending on what they experience. Under a skillful leader, they may learn self-reliance. The list is endless. This learning is sometimes called incidental, but it may have a great impact on the development of the trainee.

LEARNING IS AN ACTIVE PROCESS

The trainee does not soak up knowledge the way a sponge absorbs water. The instructor cannot assume that the student remembers a thing just because he was physically present at a training session when the instructor "taught" it. Neither can he assume that the student can apply what he knows, just because he can quote the correct answers from the training manual. For a person to learn, he must react and respond, perhaps outwardly, perhaps only inwardly, emotionally, or intellectually. But if learning is a process of changing behavior, clearly that process must be an active one.

KINDS OF LEARNING: THE BASIS FOR METHOD

What is the best training approach? What techniques will best achieve the training goals? To answer these questions, the leader needs a clear understanding of the nature of what the student is to learn. Even though the learning process has many aspects, the main objective of the Navy instructor is usually, but not always, the learning of a skill, or of a concept or generalization.

LEARNING SKILLS

Most research on skill development has been on motor (physical) skills. To illustrate motor learning, follow the directions below:

> Write the word "learning" 15 times with your left hand (or with your right hand, if you are left handed). Try to improve the speed and quality of your writing.

In completing this exercise, you experience several principles of motor learning which are discussed in the following paragraphs.

Physical Skills Involve More Than Muscles

The above exercise contains a practical example of the multi-faced character of learning. While a muscular sequence was being learned, other things were happening as well. Your perception changed as the sequence became easier. Your concepts of how to perform the skill developed and your attitudes changed.

The Desire To Learn Affects Learning

Thinking back over your experiences in learning to perform certain skills, you may be surprised at how much more readily you learned those skills that appealed to your own needs. Shorter initial learning time and more rapid progress in improving the skill likely occurred. Conversely, where your desire to learn or to improve was minimal, your progress was not as great. A person may read dozens of books a year, but his reading rate will not increase unless he deliberately sets out to increase it. In the preceding learning exercise, it is unlikely that any improvement occurred unless you had the desire to improve. To improve, one must not only recognize his mistakes but he must also make an effort to correct them. The person who lacks the desire to improve is not likely to make the effort. Consequently, he continues to practice his errors. The skillful instructor relates the training objective to the student's intentions and needs. He, therefore, builds on the student's natural enthusiasm.

Providing Patterns To Follow Aid Learning

One way to prepare the trainee to perform a task is to provide him with a clear, step-by-step example. As he has a model to follow he gets a clear picture of each step in the sequence — what it is, how to do it. Often you can provide a demonstration yourself, emphasizing the steps and the techniques. Sometimes an outside expert can demonstrate what is to be done. Films can also be shown. In any case, however, the trainee needs a clear idea of what he is to do.

Performing The Skill Aids Learning

As you experienced writing a word with the wrong hand, consider how difficult it would be to tell someone else how to do it. Indeed, not even demonstrating how to do it would result in his learning the skill. Obviously, practice is necessary. The learner needs to coordinate his muscles, visual, and tactile senses. Often this requires extensive practice.

Practice benefits the trainee in another way. As he gains proficiency in a skill, verbal instruction means more to him. Where a long, detailed explanation is confusing before he begins performing, specific comments are more meaningful and useful after he has begun to master the skill.

Knowledge Of Results Aids Learning

A student can discover his errors easily as he learns simple skills. In learning complex skills, mistakes are not always apparent, or the learner may know something is wrong but not know how to correct it. In any case, you provide a helpful and essential function when you tell the trainee how well he is doing. It is just as important for the learner to know when he is right as when he is wrong. You should tell him as soon as possible after he performs the task, for he should not be allowed to practice mistakes. It is more difficult to unlearn a mistake and learn correctly, than it is to learn correctly from the beginning.

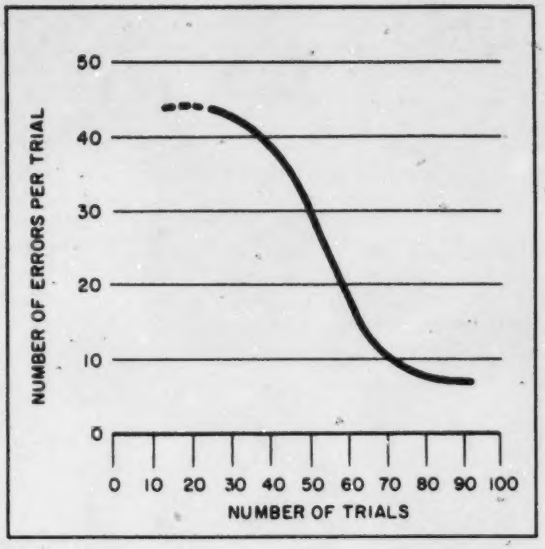
One way to apprise the trainee of his progress is to repeat the demonstration or example and to show him the standard against which he can compare his performance.

Progress Follows A Pattern

The experience of learning to write a word with the wrong hand probably confirms what has been consistently demonstrated in laboratory experiments on skill learning. The first trials

are slow, and coordination is lacking. Mistakes are frequent, but each trial provides clues for improvement in later trials. The learner modifies different aspects of the skill: how to hold the pencil, how to execute finger and hand movements, etc.

Graphs of the progress of skill learning usually show similar patterns.



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There is rapid improvement in the early trials. But the curve levels off and may stay level for significant periods. Further improvements may seem unlikely. Such a development is a learning plateau and may signify several conditions. The learner may have reached the limits of his capability; he may be consolidating his level of skill; his interest may have waned; or he may need a more efficient method for increasing his progress. Keep in mind that the apparent lack of increasing proficiency does not necessarily mean that learning has ceased. The point is that a leveling off process in learning motor skills is normal and should be expected after an initial period of rapid movement. You can prepare the trainee for this situation to ward off his discouragement. If he knows this may occur, his frustration may be lessened.

The Duration And Organization Of The Lesson Affect Learning

In planning training sessions, the length of time devoted to practice is a primary consideration. A beginner reaches a point where additional practice is not only unproductive but may even be harmful. When he reaches this point, his errors increase and his motivation may decrease. But as he gains experience he can profit from longer periods of practice.

Another consideration is to whether to divide the practice period (and perhaps even the instruction) into segments, or whether to plan one continuous, integrated sequence. The answer depends on the skill to be learned. Some skills are composed of closely related steps, each dependent on the preceding one, for example, learning to operate a movie machine. Other skills are composed of related sub-groups of skills, for example, learning to fly an airplane.

The Evaluation Of A Trainee's Progress Aids Learning

If a teacher were to evaluate the fifteenth writing of the word "learning" he could give only limited help towards further improvement. He could judge whether the written word was legible and evaluate it against some criterion or standard. He might even assign it a grade of some sort. But none of these actions would be particularly useful to the beginning learner. He can profit more by having someone watch him perform, criticize him constructively, help him eliminate his errors, and tell him what he is doing correctly.

In the initial stages, practical suggestions are more valuable to the learner than a grade. However, the instructor should evaluate his teaching effectiveness in the beginning stages and identify the learner's strengths and weaknesses, a prerequisite for making constructive criticism. He should also identify special problem areas and predict student learning potential.

The Application Of Skill Is The Final Learning Criterion

The final criterion for learning is use. Can the trainee use what he has learned? It is not uncommon to find that trainees devote much time

and effort to learn new abilities, and then they fail to apply these abilities on the job. To solve the problem, two conditions must exist: (1) the trainee must learn the skill so well that it becomes easy, even habitual for him to perform it; (2) he must recognize the types of situations where it is approrpiate to use the skill.

LEARNING CONCEPTS AND GENERALIZATIONS

Teaching for intellectual learning offers a challenge because this type of learning can be only inferred, not observed. A vast amount of literature on experimental psychology deals with the way people learn concepts and generalizations — the ideas to be known, understood, or applied. Briefly, a concept is a mental picture of a group of things with common characteristics. A generalization is a person's idea of the relationships between two or more concepts. To illustrate, the definition of learning in the preceding section involves a concept of learning. The characteristics of learning, on the other hand, are generalizations.

A concept is an abstract idea about a class of particular things. Concepts are formed by generalizing one's experiences with a particular thing. Concepts represent concrete objects (airplane, book, dog) or abstract ideas (honesty, leadership).

A generalization is a statement of relationship, usually of wide application. Ordinarily, it is a statement about the relationship of two or more concepts. For example, a person may have formed the concepts of jet aircraft and of loudness. Through experience he forms the generalization that jet aircraft are loud. Not all generalizations are verbalized. A person may develop the generalization that a certain type of situation brings him satisfaction. He may seek out that situation but not know exactly why. It should be pointed out that the generalizations people form are not always true. People sometimes have wrong ideas about the world in which they live.

RELATING CONCEPTS TO THE LEARNING SITUATION

You will recall the brief discussion in chapter 5 on how we form concepts. Now we shall relate concepts to the learning situation and to your role as a teacher.

First, a great deal of concept formation occurs without the specific aid of teachers. Often concept formation depends on the amount and variety of experience. Extensive experience with a wide variety of encounters often builds valid concepts. What then is your role as an instructor?

You can identify and organize those experiences that provide the basis for forming the concepts the trainee needs. That, of course, presumes that you identify the desired concepts. You can help the student organize his knowledge and identify the critical features of the desired concepts. As he develops greater experience resources to draw on, he reaches the point where he can profit from vicarious experience: by listening to well organized training sessions, and by comparing experiences with other trainees. The key word is experience. Valid, meaningful concept formation must be based on a hard core of firsthand experience.

Second, as an instructor you guard against your trainee accepting ready-made concepts or accepting the description of a concept from another person.

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The trainee has no basis of experience for such a concept; he merely memorizes the words and repeats them on occasion. His handicap becomes evident if he is confronted with a new situation involving the concept.

The temptation is to believe that the student who can recite the key ideas understands the concepts involved. Unfortunately, this is not necessarily true, a fact that most instructors realize. Yet, there are instructors who still try to teach mostly with words and with too few meaningful learning experiences.

RELATING GENERALIZATIONS TO THE LEARNING SITUATION

As with concept formation, generalizations are formed out of the experiences of the learner. The process of concept formation may proceed at the same time the learner is developing generalizations about the concepts. It is possible to have a well established generalization and still be a bit hazy about some of the concepts involved. For example, a person forms the concept that "The republican system of government is better than any other system in the world." But he may not have too clear an understanding of what the concept, "other systems" means. Also, he may have only a general notion of what the concept, "republican system," really means. In this case, we believe his generalization to be correct, but the basis for it is not strong. Such a situation is not desirable, but it can happen.

We stated that concept formation depends on the amount and variety of experiences, more than the depth and significance to them. The development of generalizations requires not only extensive and varied experiences, but meaningful and significant experiences as well. People develop inaccurate generalizations when they have too little information and experience to use or when they allow their prejudices or biases to influence their interpretation of what they have experienced. They may even wish to believe a particular point of view so strongly that they are misled into accepting it. All these conditions present challenges to you as a trainer and instructor.

Conceivably, learning may be on the verbal plane only; the concepts may be devoid of meaning. To illustrate this point, please memorize the following generalization:

Glunders should be delped ordly.

Now, to test your grasp of the principle, please answer the following questions:

What should be done to Glunders?
How should it be done?

If you memorized the principle well and studied the questions carefully, you probably answered that "Glunders should be delped," and that "they should be delped ordly." Of course, you still do not have the slightest notion of what Glunders are, or how they are "delped ordly." The concepts are devoid of meaning; therefore the generalization is pointless. It has no applicability to your life or problems.

Here are some points for you to remember in training your people:

- Reduce the concepts and generalizations taught so that the student can thoroughly master what he does learn. There is little point in requiring him to memorize 100 principles if he uses only twenty. Teach those twenty principles so well that he always remembers and uses them.

- Provide practical and varied learning experiences so the student can build a solid basis for his concepts. Provide sufficiently wide and significant experiences for him to develop clear and useful generalizations.

- Be constantly aware of the individual differences among your people. Their range of experience and learning readiness presents a challenge to you in planning for their individual needs. The good instructor always remembers that his training objective is for each trainee to learn.

MAJOR "LAWS" OF LEARNING

Professor Edward L. Thorndike of Teachers College, Columbia University, New York was one of the pioneers in educational psychology. Early in this century, Professor Thorndike postulated several "laws" of learning. These rules or principles are generally applicable to the learning process. In the years since, other psychologists have found that learning is a more complex process than some of these "laws" suggest. While Professor Thorndike's laws have some exceptions, they still provide an insight into the learning process and are included in this chapter for that reason.

The "laws" that follow are not necessarily as Professor Thorndike stated them. During the years they have been restated and supplemented but in essence, they may be attributed to him. The first three are the basic laws, as originally identified: the law of readiness, the law of exercise, and the law of effect. The three laws that were added later as the result of experimental studies are: the law of primacy, the law of intensity, and the law of recency.

LAW OF READINESS

A person learns best when he is ready to learn, and he does not learn much if he sees no reason for learning. An instructor usually has the responsibility to get a student ready to learn. If a student has a strong purpose, a clear objective, a valid reason for learning something, he makes more progress than if he lacks motivation. Readiness implies a degree of single-mindedness and eagerness. When a student is ready to learn, he meets his teacher at least halfway and this simplifies the teacher's job.

Under certain circumstances, the teacher can do little, if anything, to inspire a student's readiness to learn. If outside responsibilities, interests, or worries weigh too heavily on a student's mind, if his schedule is overcrowded, if his personal problems seem insoluble, a student may have little interest in learning. Health, finances, or family affairs can sometimes overshadow a person's desire to learn.

LAW OF EXERCISE

This law states that those things most often repeated are best remembered. It is the basis of practice and drill. The human memory is subject to error. The mind can rarely retain, evaluate, and apply new concepts or practices after a single exposure. A student does not learn touch typewriting at one sitting. He learns by applying what he has been told, and everytime he practices, his learning continues. The instructor must provide opportunities for his people to practice or repeat new skills, and he must see that this process is directed at a goal. Repetition can be of many types including recall, review, restatement, manual drill, and physical application.

LAW OF EFFECT

This law is based on the emotional reaction of the learner. It states that learning is strengthened when accompanied by a pleasant or satisfying feeling, and learning is weakened when associated with an unpleasant feeling. An experience that produces feelings of defeat, frustration, anger, confusion, or hopelessness in the learner is unpleasant to him. If an instructor attempts to teach intricate procedures to a trainee who does not know the basic procedures, the trainee is likely to feel inferior and to be dissatisfied. As a demonstration that shows the trainee his goal, the intricate procedures might help motivate the student. But as procedures to be learned immediately, they might frustrate him. In terms of the learning objective, this experience would be unpleasant.

Instructors should be cautious about using negative motivation. Impressing learners with the difficulty of mastering a new skill or solving a problem can make the teaching skill difficult. Usually it is better to show learners that mastering a new skill or solving a problem is within their capabilities. Whatever the learning situation, it contains elements that affect the student positively and give him a feeling of satisfaction. Every learning experience does not have to be entirely successful, nor does the student have to master each lesson completely. But a student's chance of success is increased if the learning experience is pleasant.

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LAW OF PRIMACY

Primacy, the state of being first, often creates a strong, almost unshakable impression. For the instructor, this means that what he teaches must be correct the first time. Correcting erroneous learning is more difficult than teaching it correctly the first time. If a new piano student learns incorrect finger positions, his teacher usually has a difficult task in unteaching the bad habits and reteaching good ones. Every student should be started in the right direction. His first experience should be positive and functional so it can lay the foundation for all that is to follow.

LAW OF INTENSITY

A vivid, dramatic, or exciting learning experience teaches more than a routine or boring experience. A student of literature is likely to gain greater understanding and appreciation of Shakespeare's play "Macbeth" from seeing it performed than from merely reading it. He can often learn more about fire-fighting from watching a fire demonstration than from listening to a lecture on the subject. The law of intensity implies that a student will learn more from the real thing than from a substitute. Mockups, slides, movies, charts, posters, photographs and other audio-visual aids can add vividness to your instruction. Demonstrations also intensify the learning experiences of trainees.

LAW OF RECENCY

Other things being equal, the things most recently learned are the things best remembered. Conversely, the farther a student is removed timewise from a new fact or procedure, the more difficulty he has in remembering it. It is easy, for example, to recall a telephone number dialed a few minutes previously but it is usually impossible to recall an unfamiliar number dialed a week earlier. The teacher recognizes the law of recency when he carefully summarizes the main points of a demonstration. He repeats, restates, or reemphasizes the important points to make sure the student remembers them.

All the laws of learning are not apparent in every learning situation. These laws manifest themselves singly or in groups. If an instructor understands the laws of learning, he can deal intelligently with motivation, participation, and individual differences, the three major factors affecting learning.

FACTORS THAT AFFECT LEARNING

MOTIVATION

The factor that has perhaps the greatest influence on learning is motivation, the force that causes a person to move toward a goal. This force can be rooted in any or all of the personal-social needs of the student; for example, the need for security, for new experience, for recognition, for self-esteem, for conformity, or the need to help others. Such needs compel people to act, to move, to start working toward an objective, or to achieve a goal. An instructor has a responsibility to recognize and identify these needs to the extent possible and then to seek ways to satisfy them through his instruction.

To be successful, the learner must have a need to know, understand, believe, act, or acquire a skill. The wise instructor realizes that these needs are not separate and distinct from the personal-social needs of the learner. The instructor must create the conditions that make students want to learn, and if necessary, must remove obstacles that students sometimes place in the paths of their learning. The trainee must have a reason for learning and if he cannot find it for himself, the instructor must help him find it.

A need to learn presupposes goals or objectives. If the motivation is right, the student knows what these goals are and how he can reach them. In the learning situation, the instructor usually establishes a clear and specific objective for the trainees. Without an objective, neither the trainee nor the instructor can measure progress or evaluate achievements.

Illustrations of weak and strong motivations are all around us. Consider, for example, the student who attends a required course in communications-electronics without any prospect of using what he studies. Since his interest in the course is academic and communications-electronics has nothing to do with his job or his future, it is difficult for him to apply all his energies and efforts to learn the course material. In contrast, if a student knows that at the end of this same course he will be assigned a job requiring the knowledge of communications-electronics, he has a goal. He can partially satisfy his needs for recognition, security, self-esteem, and professional growth by mastering the course material. In this latter instance, even though the need and desire to know are built in, the learner needs and wants to know

the objectives of the course and to believe he can reach it.

To meet his responsibility to motivate learners, the instructor can capitalize on whatever built-in motivations he finds in his learners. The big challenge is to shape personal-social motivations to make them serve the learning situation. The instructor must first establish learning objectives and then try to activate forces that cause the learner to work toward them. This is motivation in the learning situation.

PARTICIPATION

Trainees learn best when they are active. Participation in a lesson means action. This action profoundly influences learning. Because the competent instructor realizes that idleness, either mental or physical, is detrimental to learning, he plans a variety of activities for his students. Activity takes many forms: thinking, listening, observing, recalling, reasoning, generalizing, imagining, writing, discussing, answering, questioning, disagreeing, feeling, touching, moving, doing, and speaking. All help the student to learn.

Whatever the activity, the effective instructor makes sure that his students have something to do. There is a correlation between doing and learning. How much a student learns is in direct ratio to how much he does, or how much he becomes involved in what he does. Stated simply, the more of the five senses a learner uses to learn something, the more effective his learning will be. Consider flag-folding as an example.

A student can learn how to fold a flag simply by reading about it. He cannot, however, learn this skill as effectively as he could if, in addition to reading about it, he has someone explain it to him. The instruction could go a step further to provide a demonstration of flag-folding. Following it, the student might actually fold the flag. In each step of the instruction he uses another sense, adds another dimension, and therefore, learns more. Finally, he might be asked to teach someone how to fold a flag. In this sequence, the student progressively uses as many senses as can be used in learning to fold a flag.

Participation can make learning permanent. A student who is required to think imaginatively and selectively learns more than one who merely absorbs knowledge passively. A student who learns through his senses of touch, sight, sound, and smell, learns better than if he learns through one sense alone. If a student reads something, then thinks about it, questions it, writes it down, talks about it, and listens to what others say about it, his learning is more effective than if he merely reads and stops there. Since participation improves learning, it is the teacher's responsibility to make participation possible.

A teacher can encourage students to take notes. He can pose problems and require solutions. He can assign writing, reading, and research projects; form discussion groups and require students to evaluate one another's work. Participation enhances the student's chances of successfully learning the task at hand.

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

We talked about individual differences in chapter 5. Now we shall relate individual differences to the learning process.

A new instructor may be discouraged when he discovers that a well-planned lesson or training session does not teach all his students with equal effectiveness. But he soon realizes that this is a natural and predictable state of affairs. Students seldom learn at the same rate.

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Differences in rates of learning are based on differences in native intelligence, background, experience, interests, desires to learn, and countless other psychological, emotional, and physical factors. That students are different is a fact that instructors must recognize to determine how much can be taught and at what rate and when.

Since students do not learn at the same rate, it follows that the levels of student understanding are not the same at any given moment. Students do not learn the same thing to the same degree. The teacher must determine the individual levels of understanding, how much each student learns. Otherwise, he cannot know how well he has taught, whether or not his job is finished, and what he should do next.

An instructor can measure a student's understanding or mastery of a lesson in several ways. Group discussions and question and answer sessions are generally reliable. Formal or informal tests or quizzes sometimes provide objective assessments. Informal talks or actual performance of the task also indicate a student's progress.

After he determines individual differences, the good instructor attempts to compensate for them. He tries to equalize the different levels of understanding. Ideally, he raises the levels of some students without retarding the progress of others. This is a challenge to teaching and a teacher can meet it in a number of ways.

The instructor can plan semi-independent activities in which the trainee works alone or as part of a small group. The instructor is available to give help but only when requested or needed. The trainee works on his own, aware that help is available if he needs it.

The instructor can provide for supervised study, which requires his presence and guidance. The instructor gives personal and individual instruction where needed. This often reaches students who hesitate to speak out before their co-workers but who feel free to talk with their instructor. A student sometimes has a personal problem that does not concern the study group as a whole, and some students will not air their problems before a group. Supervised study gives these students a chance to deal with their problems privately. By using this method, a teacher often discovers that what a student considers a special or unusual lack of understanding is not special or unusual at all but common to the group.

The teacher can compensate for individual differences through flexible assignments in which the workload is adjusted to the capabilities of individual students. When circumstances permit it, this plan creates an ideal learning situation in which each student progresses at his own pace. Assigning the same work to every student has its pitfalls. It pushes the poor student beyond his capability and fails to offer the capable student a challenge. Through flexible assignments tailored to individual capabilities, the teacher capitalizes on the specialized interests and aptitudes of all students.

The teacher who is not aware that people learn at different rates, that no one lesson has the same effect on everybody, that individual reasons for learning are different, finds himself in a quandry whenever he fails to meet his teaching objectives. In a normal learning situation, he often finds the daydreamers and the idealists who respond best to ideas and abstractions. Or he sometimes has a student who likes experimentation and demonstration for what it proves on the spot rather than for its application to a universal truth. Some students are in a hurry to learn the task or subject matter while others refuse to be rushed. Some are practical and some are impractical. The differences are endless. Yet the teacher must often teach the same lesson to his people who differ in many ways and achieve the same objective for all.

RETENTION OF LEARNING

This section and the next deal with two related aspects of the learning process: permanency of learning and transfer of learning. In some ways it is difficult to separate the two. Generally, transfer of learning means taking a thing out of its formal learning environment and using it in another situation. Obviously, a person cannot transfer his learning to a new situation unless he remembers it. Therefore, what the instructor does to help a person remember also helps him to transfer his learning.

THEORIES OF FORGETTING

A discussion of why people forget may point the way to helping them remember. Several theories account for forgetting.

Disuse

It has long been argued that a person forgets those things that he does not use. The high school or college graduate is dismayed by the

small amount of factual data he retains several years after graduation. Since the things he does remember are those he uses in his job, he concludes that forgetting results from disuse. But the explanation is not quite that simple. Experimental studies show, for example, that a hypnotized person can describe specific details of an event which he is not normally able to recall. Apparently, the memory is there, locked in the recesses of the mind. The difficulty is in summoning it up to conscious thought.

Interference

One theory holds that people forget a thing because a certain experience overshadowed it, or that the learning of similar things intervened. This theory may explain how the range of experiences after graduation from school causes a person to forget previously acquired knowledge. In other words, new events displace many things that had been learned. From experiments, two conclusions about interference may be drawn: (a) Closely similar material seems to interfere with memory more than dissimilar material. (b) Material not well learned suffers most from interference.

Repression

In chapter 6 we learned that repression is forgetting due to the submersion of ideas into the unconscious mind. Material that is unpleasant or produces anxiety may be forgotten by a person, but not intentionally. It is subconscious and protective. The repression theory may help explain some cases of forgetting.

Each of these theories imply that when a person forgets something, it is not actually lost; rather, it is unavailable for recall. The instructor's challenge is to make certain the student's learning is always available for recall. The following suggestions can help.

- Teach the subject or skill thoroughly and with meaning to the student. Material thoroughly learned is resistant to forgetting. Experimental studies indicate that meaningful learning builds patterns of relationship in the student's consciousness. Whereas rote learning is superficial and not easily retained, meaningful learning goes deep, because it involves principles and concepts anchored in the student's own experience.

- Help the student understand a reason for remembering. A desire to remember increases the chances of remembering. It follows, then, that a lack of such a desire increases the chances of forgetting.

- Help the student develop good study habits. Just as the teacher should teach meaningfully, the student should be encouraged to study for meaning, not just for rote memory. The student should apply himself toward thorough understanding and proficient skills.

- Help the student to develop a program of review. Short periods of review and opportunities for practice are helpful.

TRANSFER OF LEARNING

During a learning experience, a student may be aided by things he learned previously. On the other hand, previous learning sometimes interferes with the current learning task. Consider the learning of two skills, A and B. If the learning of A helps to learn B, positive transfer occurs. If the learning of A hinders the learning of B, negative transfer occurs. For example, the learning of addition probably helps the learning of multiplication; learning how to shoot a bow and arrow may help to learn how to shoot a rifle. But learning to drive an automobile in U. S. traffic may hinder learning to drive in British traffic because Britons drive on the left-hand side of the road. For some people, the study of Spanish first makes it more difficult to learn French. Also, the learning of B may affect the retention or proficiency of A, either positively or negatively. While these processes may help to substantiate the interference theory of forgetting, they are still concerned with the transfer of learning.

Some degree of transfer is involved in practically all learning. Except for certain inherent responses, all new learning is based upon previously learned experience. People interpret new things in terms of what they already know.

This points to a need to know more about each student, what his past experience has been, what he has already learned. In planning training sessions, instructors should plan for transfer by organizing the sessions in a meaningful sequence. Each session should help the student

to learn what is to follow. Materials should be presented in a sequence that will enhance later and more complex learning.

The cause of the learning transfer process and how it operates have not yet been identified and explained. But no one disputes the fact that transfer does occur. The instructor can help the student to achieve transfer by:

- Planning for transfer as a primary objective. As in all areas of instruction, transfer is more likely to occur if the instructor makes plans to achieve it.

- Making certain that the student understands that what he learns can be applied in other situations. Prepare him to seek other applications.

- Insuring thorough learning. Over-learning may sometimes even be appropriate. The more thoroughly the student understands the material, the more likely he is to see its relationship to new situations. Avoid rote learning for it does not foster transfer.

- Providing meaningful learning experiences that build the student's confidence in his ability to transfer learning. Provide activities that challenge him to exercise his imagination and ingenuity in applying his knowledge and skills.

- Using instructional materials that help him form valid concepts and generalizations. Use materials that make relationships clear.

- Educating the student to use judgment in applying his generalizations.

BUILDING ATTITUDES TOWARD LEARNING AND THE JOB

An attitude can be defined as a feeling, either favorable or unfavorable, toward somebody or something. Each person, from his own general concepts and values, forms his own attitudes.

Studies of attitudes in relation to behavior have proved inconclusive. It is uncertain as to whether attitudes determine behavior or vice-versa. Generally, people's attitudes tend to persist despite changed circumstances or new evidence. On the other hand, people often do change their attitudes. Many researchers believe that when someone does change his attitude, it is often the result of following or imitating some model, such as parent, teacher, or supervisor.

Most people who enter the Navy have a good attitude. Your problem is not so much how to improve your people's attitude, but how to maintain the good disposition they already have. When you train or supervise you will want to avoid those aversive situations that turn your people against you, the subject being taught, or the work. Among the things you can avoid are:

- Sarcasm—Caustic language will diminish your chances for gaining cooperation or interest.

- Indifference to the needs of your people—A leader's lack of attention or interest decreases the morale of the work force or trainees.

- Assignment of the most difficult tasks always to the conscientious workers or trainees. They may reach the conclusion they are being exploited because they have ability and work hard.

On the positive side, some of the things you can do to strengthen favorable work and learning attitudes by your people are:

- Encouraging their participation — Encourage them to contribute their ideas and to personally identify with the subject at hand.

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• Giving credit for achievement — Acknowledge the attainment warmly when your people learn new skills. It may have seemed simple to you, but have been a real challenge to them.

• Challenging their motivation to learn new tasks and to perform new tasks efficiently — For example, inform your people about how their jobs relate to the mission's goal.

• Gaining their confidence — Take a personal interest in them. Be friendly, helpful, and fair in your dealings with them.

Simply stated, try to build into the work and learning environment those stimuli that will foster favorable attitudes toward learning, and try to eliminate those stimuli that will generate unfavorable attitudes toward learning.

This chapter is no more than an entry-level look in the field of educational psychology in the area of learning.

Learning is a change in behavior as a result of experience. Learning is purposeful and comes only through experience. Learning is multifaced; the learner's full set of learning equipment is always involved — his thinking, feelings, emotions, etc. Learning is an active process.

In instructing, the teacher should use teaching methods appropriate to what is to be taught. You may want to use the lecture approach, group discussion, or on the job training depending on what you must teach your people. The learning of concepts and generalizations depends on a broad range of student experience and careful guidance by the teacher.

The laws of learning provide useful insights into the learning process. The law of effect is especially significant — it states that learning is strengthened when it is accompanied by satisfying or pleasurable conditions.

A knowledge of the laws of learning helps the teacher to understand and to use three factors that affect learning: motivation, participation, and individual differences. The student must have a need to know, understand, believe, act, or acquire a skill. All these needs, which make up motivation, are inseparable from the personal-social needs of the student. A student learns best when he is active, when he participates. When purposeful activity is associated with learning, it makes the learning more permanent. Students learn at different rates because of differences in experience; background; intelligence; interests; desire to learn; and psychological, emotional, and physical factors. The teacher must recognize these individual differences and gear his teaching to reach all students, whatever their capabilities and abilities.

The central questions in education deal with retention of learning and transfer of learning. Disuse, interference, and repression may account for forgetting. Transfer of learning is involved either when the learning of one task affects another, or when the learner adapts what he learns for use in new situations. The key to both is thorough learning of the essential concepts and generalizations. This leads to meaningful learning, anchored in the student's experiences.

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APPENDIX I

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